

**A NARRATIVE INQUIRY INTO THE INDUCTION AND  
MENTORING EXPERIENCES OF OVERSEAS TRAINED  
TEACHERS IN SOUTH AUCKLAND SPECIAL NEED SCHOOLS**

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## **ABSTRACT**

This is a qualitative study in which I have collected and interpreted data in narrative form. In this qualitative study, interviews were carried out with eight teachers who had been teaching in a South Auckland Special Needs School for 10 years between 2000 to 2010 who all had previously taught overseas. Research has shown that teacher induction programmes are crucial in supporting teachers as they move into the professions or to new contexts. It is critical to note that teaching is one of the few professions where, newly qualified professionals are required to assume full professional responsibilities from the day they enter the profession.

For teachers thrive in their profession they need support from others which includes developing an understanding of the teaching process, administrative systems, and management of students' behavioural issues along with growth in curriculum strategies. Induction and mentoring form a vital part of the introduction of new teachers into education, and there are no short cuts to this process.

New Zealand has historically depended on teachers from the United Kingdom to fill the gaps, but as we move into the 21st century, the supply of teachers is now from a much wider group of countries. This study investigated the induction and mentoring experiences of overseas trained teachers in South Auckland special need Schools. While there is considerable research on experiences of beginning teachers' induction and mentoring, especially in developed countries, very little research has been carried out focusing on overseas trained teachers moving from mainstream teaching to special needs teaching who has previously taught overseas.

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I would like to offer my sincerest gratitude towards my supervisors Dr Tafili Utumapu-McBride and Dr Ross Bernay, who gave me their support and guidance necessary to complete this research.

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Above all to, my Heavenly Father, for granting me His grace to complete this study.

## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to all the teachers who played a role in giving me their undivided attention during all the years I have sat in their class.

## **ATTESTATION OF AUTHORSHIP**

“I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of the university or other institution of higher learning”

*“Almost all educational problems of any importance are problems that have a history, that have been addressed in the past, and that have import for the current state of affairs in education” (Eisner, 1992, p. 30).*

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CEC	Council of Exceptional Children
IEP	Individualised Educational Plan
NZQA	New Zealand Qualifications Authority
NZTC	New Zealand Teachers Council
NZQF	New Zealand Qualifications Framework
OTT	Overseas Trained Teacher
PRT	Provisionally Registered Teacher
QCT	Queensland College of Training



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## Chapter Overviews

Each chapter begins with a saying (whakatauki) that reflects the thoughts, values and advice of past researchers. Each saying contains profound knowledge and advice and further vindicates the depth of special education pedagogy and etiquette.

When I began working on this thesis I realised there was a need to set the platform, therefore, the first task was to take you, the reader on a journey of how the writer became a teacher and eventually a special needs teacher. There was neither time nor space to do this in great length but the *Preamble*- was set aside in order to get a “bird’s eye” view into the journey. Initially this introduction outlines my journey to this point, introducing myself, positioning myself within the context of teaching, revealing how I came to be a special needs teacher.

*Chapter Two* looked at reasons to investigate the phenomenon of induction and mentoring focusing on OTTs who were new to teaching students with intellectual disability in Decile one schools in South Auckland, New Zealand.

The second task was to consider how the experiences of other overseas teachers sit within the existing special need’s philosophy. This was done by reviewing relevant up-to-date literature and current research on the topic in *Chapter Three*, a review of literature. As the concept under study is “new” there was little to no literature available on the subject in New Zealand and the literature review draws heavily on overseas studies.

In *Chapter Four* the methods and methodology for the research is presented. In this chapter, the researcher explains his theoretical perspective and the rationale behind the chosen methodology.

*Chapter Five* is devoted to the data analysis process while *Chapter Six* outlines the narratives of each participant carefully selected and constructed to reflect upon past personal circumstances.

Findings are presented in *Chapter Seven* that emerged from the data. This chapter also provides a summary, considers the findings, and explore future directions and implications that have arisen out of the study. This thesis ends with closing comments and the road ahead.

## SETTING THE SCENE

### *Sandy\* – Overseas Trained Teacher from Zimbabwe*

Since the day I arrived I have received very little support. I tried to reach out and work with other teachers during my first year. Each year a new reform and some useless professional development were handed to us. I am on a team, but the only time we meet is during tea breaks or in the hallway. I cannot do this for 20 years. I need to be able to work with my colleagues, to grow as a professional, to feel safe and effective and valued.

### *Oliver\* - Overseas Trained Teacher from United Kingdom*

Becoming a special needs teacher was not something that I planned early in my life or even early in my teaching career. I basically stumbled into special needs out of desperation not finding a teaching position in mainstream education after moving from overseas. I quickly realised that, within any classroom, students had a wide range of skills and abilities both academically and behaviourally and I did not have the knowledge to meet their needs and work with struggling readers.

*(\* Pseudonym given for teachers)*

The profiles of Sandy and Oliver both whom are new to special needs teaching in New Zealand, illustrate the emotional dilemmas overseas trained teachers encounter during their first year in classrooms throughout the country and serve to underscore the need to investigate ways to support OTTs.



# CHAPTER ONE

## PREAMBLE

It is not sufficient simply to have an experience in order to learn. Without reflecting upon this experience it may quickly be forgotten, or its learning potential lost. It is from the feelings and thoughts emerging from this reflection that generalisations or concepts can be generated. And it is generalisations that allow new situations to be tackled effectively (Gibbs, 1988, p. 9).

## IN THE BEGINNING

Becoming a teacher is a complex process characterized by conflict and challenges, uncertainty and contradictions.

My story is, however, a story of stories. My own story is about how I have experienced my educational influences so that students can exercise their originality and critically engage with learning and how their stories about their generation of life experiences can be heard. Each year we encounter new students and become a part of their lives, just as they become part of our lives. We do our best to support, encourage, and inspire them to succeed. With our words, as well as through our actions, we model for them what is possible and what they can achieve. Regardless of whether you are a first-year teacher, a veteran teacher on the verge of retirement, or an immigrant experienced teacher teaching in a new country, we are all moved by instances that would change our perception of teaching.

As a beginning teacher I went through a “survival” phase in which I was pre-occupied with the multi-faceted nature of my work in class. It was also accompanied with a “discovery” phase where I was excited having my own classroom and students whilst indulging in an “exploration” and “experimentation” phase, experimenting with new ideas of teaching to enhance the effectiveness of my teaching pedagogy.

During this time my professional growth went through a developmental path called “apprenticeship of observation” providing me with an image of what teaching is and should look like (Lortie & Clement, 1975, as cited in Hargreaves, 2010).

Becoming a teacher was the last thought on my mind. After finishing matric (the equivalent of Year 13) I attended university for four years towards completion of a Baccalaureus Atrium Degree followed by a Higher Diploma in Education (Post Grad). I would never forget how I ended up in my first teaching position and the challenges that I faced. Walking in a classroom with 35 pairs of eyes looking at you and not having a clue what to expect or do. My senior teacher just gave me a file with names and assigned me to a class. Rotating from class to class was one of the worst experiences simply because you have to write everything on the blackboard where ever you end up and, on top of that, the students’ workbooks were stored all over the place. Being inducted into the educational system or school community was a myth along with having to endure the aggressive behaviour of experienced teachers and a lack of resources.

My passion for teaching was further dampened with the outbreak of numerous student boycotts and the inhumane treatment of the apartheid government. Vandalism and student riots along with the brutality of the South African police force had a further impact on my prospects of wanting to stay in teaching for a long time. Each year teaching had become a nightmare with unstable situations in the teaching community and the constant changes in the curriculum along with bigger class sizes. After seven years teaching at the same school in South Africa, I felt completely burnt-out and realized that I needed to change schools. Perhaps the school community at another school would be better. During this time, I did postgraduate study on a part time basis. Traveling to and from school for hours was very exhausting and the possibility of promotion was very dim. Finally I decided to call it

quits. The possibility of teaching in New Zealand offered a possible welcome change.

We teach and lead based largely on how we have experienced teaching and leadership in our own lives as students. Often our view is shaped by the examples we see, but sometimes we create structures for how we teach and lead based on how different we wish to be from those who educated us. As teachers we learn and remember by connecting new ideas to existing structures built from previous knowledge and experience. As an overseas trained qualified teacher, I had a schema for what teaching and leading looks like in schools shaped by my relatively narrow range of experiences.

As a teacher I have developed schema based on my experiences in a particular contextual setting and have rarely worked in more than one or two schools until I moved to New Zealand. As such this limited experience led to a “response set” (Woolfolk, Gara, Allen & Beaver, 2004) based on what worked in the past, but the same strategies did not work in the present environment. The meaning we attached to events in our lives can be limited by our current range of understanding (Wheatly, 2005). As teachers we reflect on what we are doing (reflection in action) and what we have done (reflection on action) in the classroom or school (Schön, 1987, as cited in Clouder, 2000).

I think a person’s philosophy of teaching is constantly changing and growing. At the point of departure, I did not see the difference in my philosophy of teaching – it did not surface for several years teaching in South Africa. I am more able to see a balance between the process and content of teaching now. My mentor in New Zealand helped me to understand the significance of both. Having to familiarise myself with the New Zealand teaching practice, while still internalising

the “old” practice was difficult, yet challenging. As an overseas trained teacher, supported by a mentor, I faced challenges of learning joining an existing community of practice and developing my own distinctive practice within that community.

Like many overseas trained teachers, I was so used to “keeping students busy” and “how to control students” especially students with learning difficulties. Once I became acquainted with the students, I challenged my prior practice and started to assimilate the principles of the discovery and discussion special needs teaching offered. Being mentored into special needs teaching was a kind of teaching that went against the “grain” of my mainstream pedagogy. Reflecting back on the impact of the formal institutional mentoring programme offered at the school, I was encouraged by how students became active learners, making connections, while engaging in problem solving and creative thinking. As an overseas trained teacher, I encountered discrimination and exclusion by being an outsider within another cultural context.

Leaving the comfort of my home country for an extended period of time I came to understand what it is to live outside the mainstream and to be perceived as the “other” teacher. While learning a second culture, I came into immediate conflict with the culture of self and the new culture to which I was exposed. I learned that South Africa is not the centre of the universe and as an outsider not being able to understand cultural issues or viewing it from a different place and point of view causes huge internal frictions. This was an extremely helpful aspect enabling me to learn about other cultures including my own. Apart from learning to better deal with cultural sensitivity, I also was put in a position where I had to evaluate my own cultural beliefs. Prior to my trip, I knew no other culture than my own.

The biggest change that happened to me was that I became much more multicultural in my view of the world. I believe that multicultural education happens every day, and that this can become a mind-set for the teacher – rather than an occupational effort. I owe this to my overseas teaching experience. Being an “outsider” my mind has been opened to other worlds. I think differently than those who have not experienced other worlds. It is something that has changed my life, and I will never be the same. As time progressed, I dealt with students’ challenges in a more constructive way. Mistakes were no longer problems for or obstacles to teaching. Instead, I turned students’ mistakes into opportunities for learning. For example, when two student’s had the wrong answer I skilfully showed them how to self-correct it by having a conversation with them or better known as engaging them in metacognition.

The goal of my teaching changed to developing the students’ ability to discover learning as fun. In this way, they can analyse and solve problems by themselves in the future. In hindsight, I became aware of the constant flip ‘back and forth’ between the now and then awakening the notion that I have to complete the syllabus, assess students and move on. I soon became aware that I needed to ‘change’ my role as a teacher from instructor to facilitator, allowing myself and the students to experience learning as ‘fun’.

I was fortunate to be assigned to someone with so much experience and so much patience. She first had me observe her in action and then we would discuss what she did and why. We talked about when and how to use stories in class or when to break students into small groups and how to keep them on task. We worked in a satellite classroom on the premises of another school, in stark contrast to my background of mainstream teaching. She taught me so much about getting outside myself to meet the children where they were in terms of culture, context and ability.

She was able to do this because she gave me permission to be myself in the room instead of trying to imitate her.

On top of that, my students came from backgrounds that were so different from what I was used to. When I went to staff meetings I kept to myself, not letting my guard down. I sat quietly trying to figure out who was friends with whom. There are all these different cliques and coalitions, and I wanted to stay out of the school politics as much as I could. But that was a mistake, too: I did not realise at that point how important it was to start networking and building my own support system. I trusted no one. It took me a long while before I started to feel really comfortable in my job and gained the confidence to feel like I knew what I was doing. It sure is a great feeling to reach that point where I know what I am doing. I have established a reputation that I am proud of, that I have worked hard to develop.

What is most interesting at this point of my career, is how some teachers are seeking advice from me and that I have been given the opportunity to mentor other teachers. I am by no means an expert, but I do feel like I am pretty good at what I do. Students trust me. I do not have to ‘prepare’ so much for my classes as I used to and have developed the ability to improvise as things unfold. I used to spend hours planning each lesson, now I just have a basic outline, but I am fully prepared to go into a different direction depending on students’ and support staff interest. I am also getting to know the families in the school community. I think over the year, one of the things that I learned that has been most valuable to me is how important it is to remain flexible. I still make lots of mistakes and have lessons that do not go well. Then you need to ask yourself “why is this”? Often it is a gap in my lesson planning or sequence or delivery or pedagogy or whatever, and so you make steps to improve it for the next time.

My favourite times in the classroom are not when I am doing something I have done before but rather when my students and I are co-constructing some experience I have never imagined before. Rather than thinking that every student is the same, I have learned to be more humble and less certain about some things. I try to treat each student, each group, as unique. I think most of all; the students teach me as much as I teach them.

As a novice in special education, I received support through formal and informal mentoring from my mentor, learning to teach in ways in which my mentor had been experimenting, although it was not the kind of teaching many teachers in the school accepted or were willing to pursue. As a novice I think my mentor set up goals with her mentoring style. She wanted to help me learn how to observe and understand the goals and purposes embedded in the teaching practice instead of learning only about the methods and materials used. As she often expressed it:

When you observe others' lessons or look at others' lesson plans, you need to pay close attention to the principles and goals of what you want your students to learn, not the things on the surface.

It is always difficult for students to see the principles and goals of these activities, but as a teacher you have to be clear in your head what it is you want children to learn. Using all these methods is needed to serve the purpose of teaching and improving teaching towards independence. In my induction, I have paid significant attention to this aspect. These experiences presents merely a small sample of the evidence overseas trained teachers gave to support the notion that they learned a significant amount personally, professionally and globally from their experience teaching "outside the box". As a special needs teacher, I got to know students' individual differences, abilities, and interests but the greatest source of joy and satisfaction arises from knowing that I made a difference. I may not have reached all

the students in a significant way, or even most of them but each year it was just enough to sustain me and feed my faith in the power of teaching. In my classroom, I have seen students improve in their academic, athletics and in the social arena.

I partner students together who do not know one another and who do not necessarily know how to get along but at the end of the year, if not sooner, I see the results: students can collaborate but can also work independently. In spite of all the benefits and joys that accompany my journey, there are also incredible challenges. I acknowledge there are many obstacles facing my teaching on a daily basis. Some are related to the classroom, others to the system in which I work, or the results of large societal issues. Over time I have experienced a loss of faith in the school system itself.

Children with special needs require modifications of curriculum strategies to teach goals and adaptations in the classroom in order to be successful. For example, a teacher may have a student with physical disabilities, sensory impairments, learning disabilities, attention deficit disorder, or emotional disturbance, each requiring special attention. There will be different academic and behavioural expectations for some of these students according to an Individualised Education Plan (IEP), assessment and New Zealand Teachers Council (NZTC) and Ministry of Education requirement. As a special needs teacher, you will implement different strategies, groupings, and assessments so that each student can be successful. At the very core of teaching is the task of helping students make connections between what they already understand and the new concepts, information, or skills [we want them to learn]. Joanne Leavitt, a parent in Santa Monica, California made a profound statement about the essentials of being a teacher:

Good teachers are those who can transmit a passion for learning. They believe all children can learn, some may take a little longer, but will not stop



until they have tried everything they can and then some. They understand that learning is a lifelong experience and let their children see they are still learning. . . . Good teachers care about their students as people, not just grades in a book (National Commission on Teaching & America's Future, 2005, p. 33, as cited in Howe, 2006).

Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999) further point out that:

What is missing from the knowledge base of teaching, are the voices of the teachers themselves, the particular contexts in which teachers work, the questions teachers ask of themselves and others, the ways teachers use writing and intentional talk in their work lives, and the ways that teachers interpret experiences as they strive to improve their own practice (p. 2).

This thesis presents not only my experiences but the experiences of several new special needs teachers. Without adequate support such as professional development and knowledgeable mentors, new teachers to new contexts may struggle to come to terms with working in schools (Murray & Male, 2005). Sometimes these obstacles create temporary barriers to students' learning: sometimes the barriers are permanent and for a special needs teacher, it is important to understand not only how learning takes place but also what may impede or block it.

This "story" is dedicated to the many teachers past and present who have influenced my life in the countless positive ways and have ultimately positioned themselves to offer me with a window to gaze into their past and present.

## **SUMMARY**

In this part of the thesis, I reflected upon and summarised the pathway I took to establish myself in both mainstream and special needs teaching over a period of 25 years. The journey was not always smooth but with the help of significant "others" along the way growth took place but provides a lens for me to view the experiences of other special needs teachers in New Zealand.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **INTRODUCTION**

The most powerful form of learning, the most sophisticated form of staff development, comes not from listening to the good words of others, but from sharing what we know with others. Learning comes more from giving than from receiving. By reflecting on what we do, by giving it coherence, and by sharing and articulating our craft knowledge, we make meaning, we learn

(Barth, 1991, p. 120, as cited in Cooper & Boyd, 1998).

### **OVERVIEW**

The global phenomenon of migration has seen the world being transformed into a village of increased mobility (Hutchinson, 2005). This unforeseen movement by people over the natural borders of countries, seeking better opportunities for their families, has also impacted the once multicultural society of New Zealand, resulting in the movement of highly qualified professionals from many countries into New Zealand. At the time of the influx in 1999, many schools were understaffed and unprepared to accommodate this growth in student numbers resulting in the recruitment of overseas trained teachers ensuring that all schools had the means to educate a diverse student population (Ng & Lee, 2009). Most of the teachers in this study could not find a teaching job in a mainstream school and were “forced” to seek employment in special needs schools. In this study overseas trained teachers, is used to depict the overseas born status of teachers, most of whom may be different in age, teaching experience and knowledge of teaching. These overseas trained teachers, in order to be successful in this new environment, needed to listen to others but more importantly to also share their experiences and learn from the experiences of others.

Although overseas trained teachers are experienced teachers in their own country, they face difficulties transitioning from teaching in their home country to another (Hutchinson, 2005; Jhagroo, 2004; Vohra, 2005). Bartell (2005) noted that

all beginning teachers including overseas trained teacher experience a “honeymoon period” during their initial induction into the teaching profession accompanied by significant challenges. These challenges arise because of the novice teachers’ inability or inexperience to excel in areas such as: classroom management, motivation of students, dealing with the individual difference amongst students, assessing students work, and setting up task.

Some of the fundamental elements confronting beginning teachers are feelings of inadequacy, a lack of support and guidance from more experienced colleagues and the unrealistic expectations placed on them by senior members of staff. Apart from similar challenges faced by their mainstream colleagues, new teachers entering special education, are confronted with complex challenges such as: adapting teaching to different student characteristics by using diverse methods of teaching, adaptation to the ability levels, patterns of different abilities, learning styles, personality characteristics, and cultural backgrounds (Conderman & Stephens, 2000; Whitaker, 2003).

The conditions under which special education teachers work can be stressful for beginning teachers because “ they find themselves having to work with challenging students, isolation and a lack of collegial support” (Kennedy & Burnstein, 2004, p. 4). Notwithstanding the quality of their pre-service preparation programmes, new teachers often leave the teaching profession and alarming reports by the Council of Exceptional Children [CEC] (2000) picture that in the United States of America, “four out of every ten special educators entering the field leave special education before their fifth year of teaching” (p. 1 ). Since teaching is a physically demanding and emotionally draining job, Bartell (2005) emphasised that the shortage of teachers and specifically special education teachers’ worldwide, needs immediate attention.

In the last few decades, groundwork has been done that proves the growing support for induction programmes worldwide. Countries such as Scotland, Japan, Switzerland, England, Australia, Germany, New Zealand and the United States of America, have mandated induction programmes and include mentoring programmes as a form of support to novice teachers (Black, 2001; Feiman-Nemser, 2003; Rippon & Martin, 2003).

### **Statement of the problem situation**

Schools and classrooms of the 21st century represent diverse student populations representative of our larger New Zealand society. Some of that increased diversity reflects a growing number of students with disabilities who are included in mainstream of education. New Zealand has not been excluded from this phenomenon.

As Wilkinson (1998) observed, the composition of New Zealand classrooms has changed in the late twentieth century from “a largely mono-cultural to an ever increasingly multicultural society” (p. 1). This is most evident in the Auckland region resulting in a “population boom” between 1980 and 1990 and as a result it has become necessary to “actively recruit teachers from overseas” (Ministry of Education, 2003, p. 1) due to a shortage of teachers in certain subject areas. According to the latest Statistics New Zealand, census report 2013, ‘New Zealander’ makes up the majority of ‘other’ ethnic group with more than 67,000 identified with one or more ethnicities other than European, Māori, Pacific, Asian, Middle Eastern, Latin American, and African (Statistics New Zealand, 2014).

The report also found that the “Auckland region has the highest proportion of overseas-born people” and 2 in 5 people (39.1 percent) living in the Auckland region were born overseas, an increase from 37.0 percent in 2006 (p.21). As a result, the

majority of overseas born teachers are able to bring to the host culture their cultural 'funds of knowledge' (Moll, 1994, as cited in Seah, 2005) and experience of teaching in other cultures making it of utmost importance to retain these teachers to minimise teacher turnover. Likewise, any teacher who has received professional development to improve student achievement in a specific school community should be a valuable asset to that school. Very little New Zealand research or study has been undertaken to explore the experiences of these overseas trained teachers in special education although there has been ongoing research published in Australia and other parts of the world (Cruickshank, 2004; Kostogriz & Peeler, 2007; Peeler & Jane, 2005; Seah & Bishop, 2001) which has been complementary to and foundational for this study. Staffing shortages from 2000 onwards particularly in the South Auckland region has forced many overseas trained mainstreamed trained teachers to seek employment in special needs teaching.

### **Purpose of the study**

The purpose of the research was to explore the experiences of induction and mentoring of overseas trained special needs teachers in South Auckland. The population of South Auckland, as noted above, is very multicultural which provides a unique context for this study. It is from the personal accounts that participants shared their experiences of teaching in a new culture whilst also learning about special education. Such accounts may assist all teachers who strive to make special needs teaching their passion. If schools are going to recruit overseas trained teachers to address the population growth in schools in the South Auckland region and to accommodate the increase in the number of students being diagnosed with special needs, overseas trained teachers will need to be aware of the New Zealand curriculum, culture and special needs pedagogy.

Being a mainstream teacher for 14 years in South Africa, I hardly noticed the detrimental effect dyslexia has on students until I met a student with dyslexia in my class in 2005. In South Africa this was not so obvious because they would just be referred to the remedial classes and labelled as “difficult learners”. Induction and mentoring was never seen as an important component in your in-service or pre-service training in South Africa. As a South African trained teacher you are seen as “qualified” because you passed your six weeks preparing test and ‘eligible to teach’ period! In light of this, induction and mentoring of teachers has become increasingly important in South African schools, however a need for proper mentoring and mentors to assist/access new teacher growth was lacking. I immigrated to New Zealand in 2003 and was given a mentor/co-teacher to assist me in my growth, application and journey in special needs teaching while at the same time becoming acquainted with the New Zealand curriculum, culture and pedagogy.

## **Rationale**

Overseas Trained Teachers face challenges when transitioning from teaching in their home country to teaching in a foreign country. Stirzaker (2004) concurs with this opinion, stating that “starting a new job in a foreign country where most of the ‘customers’ (parents and pupils) are from a different cultural norm is therefore likely to be particularly stressful, as it creates the necessity of simultaneously adapting to new cultures both in and out of the workplace” (p. 31).

To teach in a school in New Zealand, all teachers whether New Zealand trained or overseas trained are required to demonstrate that they meet all the requirements as set out by the NZTC in order to become fully registered teachers. However, overseas trained teachers further need a full assessment of qualifications gained outside New Zealand. This is done to compare the overseas trained teachers’

qualification with those on the New Zealand Qualifications Framework (NZQF) – (New Zealand Qualification Authority, 2013).

Overseas trained teachers appointed to their first teaching position in New Zealand’s mainstream education system, are registered by the NZTC in one of three categories; provisional, subject to confirmation, or full. All teachers who want to pursue a career in teaching, irrespective of where you received your teachers training, begin as a provisionally registered teacher in New Zealand schools. Thus PRTs are expected to meet all of the Registered Teacher Criteria outlining all expectations for teachers, to meet the needs of all learners, in professional knowledge, practice and values and relationships, and to complete a broad-based programme of induction and mentoring over two years to gain full registration (NZTC, 2011).

As explained by Wong (2004) induction is a “comprehensive, multi-year process designed to train and acculturate new teachers in the academic standards and vision of the school” (p. 48). Accordingly, New Zealand researchers, such as Aitken, Bruce-Ferguson, McGrath, Piggot-Irvine and Ritchie (2008, p. viii) suggested that a “family of support” is an essential part of any induction programme for PRTs which is a planned, effective and comprehensive model based on increased “collaboration amongst colleagues”.

They outline that:

“...a Provisionally Registered Teacher is entitled to a structured programme of mentoring, professional development, observation, targeted feedback on their teaching, and regular assessments based on the standards for full registration” (Aitken et al., 2008, p. 1).

At this point it worth noting that, recent New Zealand studies on induction programmes for overseas trained teachers do not focus on special education schools but rather on various issues in secondary schools (Okamura, 2008; Vohra, 2005). As explained by Hutchinson and Jazzar (2007), overseas trained teachers are faced with issues that are more daunting than those facing beginning teachers. They are of the opinion that “if all new teachers are likely to face induction-related issues, imagine how much more daunting the problems must be for teachers — even experienced ones — from foreign countries and cultures” (p. 369). The problem facing overseas trained teachers is that, these educators are encountering not just a new school but a new nation and often a new culture (Hutchison & Jazzar, 2007). The induction and mentoring experiences of these teachers new to New Zealand and in particular the teaching pedagogy in special education is therefore worth investigating.

### **Aim of the study**

There is a serious shortage of qualified special teachers worldwide and not having proper induction and mentoring can have a major impact on the quality of teaching for students with special needs (McLeskey, Tyler, & Flippin, 2004). Through this study the researcher hopes to shed light on the experiences of overseas trained mainstream teachers in the context of induction and mentoring in special needs schools in South Auckland. The needs and challenges overseas trained teachers encounter at special needs schools are investigated not only to determine the nature thereof, but in order to establish aspects fundamental in developing a context specific induction and mentoring programme that will assist these teachers to better understand the complexity of special education in New Zealand.



With this study the researcher's focus will be on the needs and concerns of overseas trained teachers moving into special education during the period 2000 - 2010 after a prolonged period in mainstream teaching and the kinds of support that could be provided in assisting these teachers with their transitions into special needs teaching. Through conducting this study, the researcher hopes to assist education authorities and school managers to understand the significance of the induction and mentoring phenomenon as an integral part of professional development for newly hired special needs teachers.

The aim of this study therefore is to set guidelines for an effective staff induction programme, which is tailored to the needs of overseas trained teachers in special education while also looking at teacher performance.

**Summary:**

This part of the study looked at the reasons to pursue this study based on the limited research in this area in New Zealand Special Needs Schools. The following chapter is a review of current literature, research on education philosophy and theory, and definitions of best practice in teaching.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

Learning to teach is not a mere matter of applying decontextualized skills or of mirroring predetermined images; it is a time when one's past, present, and future are set in dynamic tension. Learning to teach—like teaching it-self—is always the process of becoming: a time of formation and transformation, of scrutiny into what one is doing, and who one can become (Waller, 1932, p. 31, as cited in Pajak, 2012).

### **OVERVIEW**

It has been 80 years since the sociologist William Waller raised concerns about the lack of support for teachers during their initial induction years of teaching and the situation has not changed since then, especially for educators new to the profession. In this statement Waller made two relevant suggestions that teaching cannot be learned solely from a textbook or from observing others, because it requires more than intellectual understanding. Secondly he mentioned that one can learn to teach, only by engaging in the act of teaching (Waller, 1932, as cited in Pajak, 2012).

In this review, beginning teacher will also refer to teachers migrating to New Zealand from overseas as well as teachers in their first year of teaching because “they aspire to achieve full registration as a teacher in Aotearoa New Zealand” (New Zealand Teachers Council, 2011, p. 12). Various research in education has revealed the complexity facing novice teachers in their first year of teaching (Busch, Pederson, Espin, & Weissenburger, 2001; Carter & Francis, 2001; Conderman & Stephens, 2000). A smooth transition into teaching will only be achievable given the necessary support from others which includes an understanding of the teaching

process, administrative systems, school culture, and management of students' behaviour (Morgan, Ashbaker, & Forbush, 1998; Daniels & McBride, 2001).

Whether an overseas trained teachers' is a mainstream teacher or, a special needs teacher, one prominent aspect will influence what these teachers do and how well these teachers do it : Who will guide the new teacher through the ups and downs of organizing the classroom, delivering effective lessons and, assessing students' achievement while managing and dealing with behavioural problems? Having an effective mentor can make the difference between the mentee's first year in teaching being successful or the mentee deciding to leave the profession.

However, acquiring a qualified, diverse, and stable teaching workforce is a critical challenge for schools in the 21st century when countries experienced a huge teacher shortage while also competing to employ overseas teachers. Teaching attracts around 4 % of the workforce in most developed countries (Nickson & Kritsonis, 2006) and it has widely been acknowledged that highly qualified teachers significantly increase student achievement; however, finding and keeping good teachers has been a longstanding problem for schools (Darling-Hammond & Youngs, 2002). Eisner (2002) commented that "ultimately, the growth of students will go no further than the growth of those who teach them" (p. 384). However, it is important to be mindful that teaching has not had the kind of support, guidance, and orientation programme for beginning staff, known as induction, commonly given in many skilled occupations of traditional professions (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004).

Although most teachers have learned relevant theories and strategies, these overseas trained teachers struggle with the practical application of their knowledge into special needs teaching. The curve is even steeper for many overseas teachers simply, because they are not familiar with "best practice" of their adopted countries

and lack basic understanding of the educational pedagogy and cultural diversity. Even though these teachers may have ‘book knowledge’ of what their job should be like, there exist gaps related to the multicultural dimension of the cultural composition of the new country. Apart from similar problems experienced by their colleagues in mainstream education, ‘new’ teachers entering special education, are confronted with a “number of time-consuming and sometimes emotionally draining challenges” which makes the teaching experience one that could best be described as being ‘extremely difficult’ (Soto-Chodiman, Pooley, Cohen, & Taylor, 2012, p. 102). For ‘new’ special needs teachers to survive they need to develop a curriculum that takes into account the understanding and perspectives of different students’ learning styles and also select material that is inclusive of the contributions and perspectives of different groups (Ladson-Billings, 2009).

### **Immigrant teachers**

In the last few decades, teachers have become an important part of the global migration of professionals: what Castles (2009) called ‘The Age of Migration’.

The loss of highly skilled and trained professionals has a huge impact on the economy and society of countries. This mass exodus of professionals leaving countries weakens many areas of the economy of the sending country, resulting in a lack of qualified people to head up any development or improvement projects that may commence. Even though overseas immigrants are highly skilled employees at the time of entering the host country, it is not uncommon for them to “experience ‘deskilling’ or to be ‘deployed’ to positions much lower than their education, experience or qualification” (Siar, 2013, p.2).

According to Crush and Frayne (2007), skilled migration represents a rapidly growing and increasingly substantial component of global migration. Demands for

highly skilled teaching professionals in many developed countries is increasing and at the same time the economies of many developing countries have become significantly weaker with the consequent fall in the value of salaries. According to Wickramasekara (2009) the serious loss of human resources for the source countries of skilled migrants often affects their development a reduced quality of services, including essential services of health and education. In these instances, source countries are “robbed” of some of their most highly qualified and innovative people. However, not all would agree with this. Current literature on the migration-development nexus takes a rather positive stand point, arguing that migrants, while signifying a loss, may also be regarded as a resource for country of origin (Nyberg-Sorensen, Hear & Engberg- Pedersen, 2002). One such positive affect of migration is that it can also promote the exchange of ideas and practices – a phenomenon sometimes referred to as political and social remittances.

Another positive impact for sending countries can result from return migration, especially if migrants have saved capital and acquired skills abroad that can be productively invested in the country of origin. Reports of “brain drain” or “cherry picking” have been reported in the United Kingdom, United States of America, South Africa and many other countries, indicating that the immigrant teacher will demand active policy intervention in many countries, particularly when it comes to certain curriculum areas and staffing of so called ‘hard-to-staff’ subjects (Cochran-Smith, 2004).

In 2011 the World Bank estimated that in 2009 alone more than 300 billion US dollars was sent back home by migrants living abroad. Money earned by these migrants is then sent to the remaining family members to help them with bills and to better their living standards which have indeed increased the standard of living for most people (World Bank, 2011).

## **The migration of highly qualified professionals**

Whether low-skilled or highly skilled, people migrate for various reasons. Both groups are induced by better remuneration and improve economic benefits in the destination countries. Qualified professionals especially are more likely to find employment quickly. Unfortunately the same people faced many unforeseen challenges the minute they arrived in the “new” country.

For the majority of highly skilled migrants, their biggest assets are their knowledge and skills. Most of them enter the destination country with high expectations that they will be able to use their education and training while acquiring new skills and further professional development. Likewise, studies by Siar (2013) in New Zealand and Australia amongst ex-Filipinos reveals some reasons for migrating to these countries. All the participants – all highly skilled professionals who included lawyers, academics, scientists and medical doctors – indicated that although they enjoy the economic security that New Zealand and Australia offer, this has not been the major motivational factor of them migrating. All of them mentioned professional and career advancement; better quality of life; safety and security, better social services, and good opportunities for their family especially for the children as the main reasons for migration.

A similar study by Astor et al., (2005) looked at the perceptions of different professionals in countries such as Nigeria, India, Colombia, Pakistan and Philippines. They undertook the study to find out the reasons why highly qualified professionals such as physicians from developing countries migrated to developed countries. Over 90 % of the 644 participants, participating in the study were of the opinion that developed countries could better provide physicians with a more suitable environment to utilize their highly specialized skills (Astor et al., 2005).

Besides economic and professional factors, general safety and better prospects for one's family in particular the children, are highly desired factors seen by the respondents in this study. There is therefore no doubt, that migrant professionals often bring their families with them when they move overseas placing a high premium on the welfare of their children, including their education.

However, not all professionals migrate for factors given above. A study conducted by the Department of Trade and Industry in the UK amongst various sectors such as finance, health, biotechnology, and information technology confirmed that highly skilled migrants are drawn to work overseas for reasons other than better pay (Raghuram, 2004). The participants in this study originated from various countries (United States of America, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the Far East) and gave reasons for their migrating to: gain experience, knowledge, or exposure, develop their careers and take advantage of better opportunities.

These studies clearly indicated that while better pay is an important factor affecting the decision of highly skilled people to move abroad, it is not always the overwhelming factor.

### **Transition into the New Zealand teaching community**

Ministry of Education surveys in 2001 and 2003 indicate that 43 per cent of secondary and composite schools started the year with vacancies, and that most of the vacancies were in Technology, English and Science (Mallard, 2003, as cited in Sharplin, 2009).

During this time the Ministry of Education actively recruited teachers from overseas in response to the population boom. Researchers Dewar and Visser (2000) have undertaken four research projects with overseas teachers in New Zealand school

between 1997 and 1998. As a result of their research, they concluded that overseas teachers were predominantly employed in urban areas, in lower decile (1-3) schools, and in schools where the proportion of Māori students was between 21% and 80% of the total roll (decile rating refers to the socio-economical area of the school).

In New Zealand, as noted earlier, all teachers are required to undergo a period during which they are Provisionally Registered. During this time teachers will need “support and guidance [including mentoring] ... as they begin their teaching practice in real situations” (NZTC, 2011, p. 8). Over the past four decades, New Zealand has had highly developed patterns of self-evaluation and improvement in initiating its beginning teachers into schools and has been seen as a “world leader” in the provision of new teacher support (Main & Hill, 2007).

It is worth noting that before 2011 New Zealand teachers’ professional development was not mandatory and much of the responsibility for promoting the professional development of teachers rested with school leaders (Timperley, Wilson, Barrar, & Fung, 2007). Prior to 2011, new staff were disposed towards learning to teach by virtue of their tertiary choice while overseas teachers needed to adapt previous experience to the school community in which they were working (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a).

There exists very little qualitative research into the experiences of immigrant teachers in New Zealand. However, a few studies during the past 10 years looked at the experiences of overseas trained teachers. In her study Biggs (2010) interviewed overseas trained teachers in South Auckland’s secondary schools to ascertain their experience into the induction. Findings by Biggs concluded that many teachers felt that schools are “ill-equipped to deal with the issues resulting from the appointment of these teachers” and “that schools must make cultural understanding a priority in



their orientation and induction programmes” (p. 93). While studying the impact of South African immigrant teachers Jhagroo (2004) supported the idea of induction for newly arrived teachers to “acquaint overseas trained teachers with knowledge of the Treaty of Waitangi and Māori traditions and values” (p. 84). A study by Vohra (2005), looking at the experience of Indian immigrant teachers in New Zealand found that there is a need to explore “immigrant teachers’ familiarity and understanding of the New Zealand curriculum and its implementation in the classroom...” (p. 21) and conclude that “there are gaps within their teaching practice” (p. 95).

Santoro et al., (2001) undertook a study to ascertain the experiences and challenges facing overseas trained teachers in Australian secondary schools an “invisible” sector of the profession. They were encouraged by the fact that overseas teachers bring with them a wealth of teaching experience which is largely ignored in their new setting. They recommended that assistance should be provided for these new arrivals to help them adapt to teaching in a new culture. On a similar note, studies by Kostogriz and Peeler (2007) concluded that the previous experience which these immigrant teachers bring is largely devalued in Australian. Earlier studies by Inglis and Philps (1995) looked at the experiences of two groups of overseas trained teachers in Australia schools - one group benefits from a mentor when they arrived while the second group did not receive any formal induction and mentoring. They found that the teachers who were provided with a mentor were able to settle in to their new culture and position more easily, and the effect was lower teacher attrition than those without a mentor.

In response to these studies the Australian Federal Government has given some consideration in planning for overseas teachers. Each year the Queensland College of Training (QCT) holds workshops around Queensland for provisionally

registered teachers providing them the opportunity to gain first-hand knowledge of QCT policy and the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (Proficient career stage) and to understand their responsibilities in the process of transitioning from provisional to full registration. Schools in Queensland Australia are provided with a leaflet entitled “Welcoming Overseas Teachers” encouraging schools to provide professional training and support, reminding schools that they can benefit from the new teachers’ previous experiences (Sellars, McNally, & Rowe, 1998). They suggest that a thorough induction programme be provided to create opportunities to design and deliver learning experiences in a supportive, non-threatening environment; development of ‘point of impact’ pedagogical curriculum skills and the opportunity to develop in areas such as routines, knowledge of students’ needs, behaviour management, planning and modifying, just to name a few.

### **Problems and Challenges of Novice Teachers**

While the main focus for this literature review is the induction and mentoring of overseas trained teachers new to special needs, it is important to note there are some commonalities between the problems and challenges for both mainstream and special needs teachers (Deruage, 2007; Tillman, 2005). Lam (2005) in particular to acknowledge that novice teachers can encounter significant problems and challenges during the first few years of teaching. Lam argues that problems and challenges for beginning teachers originate from four sources: personal adaptability, classroom teaching, administrative and support structure, and relationships with others.

For decades one of the common challenges beginning teachers new to the profession face is classroom management or often referred to as dealing with students’ behaviour because they do not yet have sufficient experience and management skills (Tillman, 2005). Novice teachers are also faced with a lack of

teaching and learning resources, large class sizes and inadequate resources adversely influence teaching (Deruage, 2007; Tillman, 2005).

A third common problem of beginning teachers is a lack of support from more experienced colleagues (Cameron, Dingle & Brooking, 2007; Deruage, 2007). In this phase of transformation from a student of teaching to a teacher of students, it is not easy for beginning teachers to ask other teachers for help because the school community is unknown to them (Lortie & Clement, 1975, as cited in Hargreaves & Fullen, 2000). Further studies by McCann and Johannessen (2009) found that the lack of support often leads to isolation on the part of novice teachers, with novice teachers spending a considerable amount of time alone in their classrooms trying to figure out things for themselves. In order to assist beginning teachers to survive and develop in the profession, forming and sustaining a mentor/mentee relationship through mentoring is required to ensure a successful induction.

While still new to teaching, beginning teachers are also faced with additional problems, such as time management (Tillman, 2005), dealing with parents (Brook & Grady, 1996) as well as issues that arise in the day-to-day life of a school. Howe (2006) has highlighted that teachers often leave the profession in those early years with a seemingly “sink or swim” approach from many schools (p. 287). In addition, Fidler (1997) (as cited in Deruage, 2007) states that beginning teachers, especially in secondary schools are often expected to teach unfamiliar subjects, and are sometimes given the most challenging classes to teach with little or no support from management. Nevertheless, there are inconsistencies in support through the mentoring programmes resulting in beginning teachers feeling isolated and unsupported with a growing dissatisfaction for teaching as a career (Benson, 2008; Hudson, Beutel & Hudson, 2009). However, the transition from teacher education

institution to the work place often is a harsh one, even for those beginning teachers who receive support and guidance through a mentoring programme (Deruage, 2007).

Beginning teachers have certain expectations of what teaching will be like but are very soon confronted with what Veenam (1984) (as cited in Wang, Odell, & Schwille, 2008) aptly described as “reality shock”, due to the marked contrast between what they envisioned during training and the facts of professional life. This reality shock has been described as one of the major contributing factors leading to the high dropout rate of nearly 30% of novice teachers who abandon the profession after their first year in teaching (Friedman, 2000).

A research study by Australian researchers, Peeler and Jane (2005) revealed that “teachers who are born and trained overseas lack culturally specific educational knowledge” and would benefit from mentors to help close the gaps “between the ‘newcomers’ former ways of knowing and current practice” (p.325). Effective teaching therefore requires the newcomers to acquire appropriate socio-cultural knowledge and suitable teaching techniques as professionals. Kostogriz (2002) contends that immigrant teachers constantly shift between past and present ways of ‘knowing’ and ‘doing’ making huge leaps in their cultural understanding in the macro-culture of education. While immigrant teachers are open to scrutiny, long-serving staff members are often reluctant to change, and prefer to ‘do-the-things-we-have-always-been-doing’ (Andrews & Lewis, 2002; Goodson, 2003). Guidance by longer serving staff will minimise the tensions OTTs experienced and will help the newcomers acquire appropriate knowledge.

## **Teacher Induction**

Educational reformists, policy makers and schools in the 21st century are faced with an enormous task to provide quality education, and a highly qualified and committed teaching force “that can educate all children well...” (Darling-Hammond, 1995, pp. 9-10, as cited in Lam, 2005).

Various researchers have emphasized the strong correlation between teacher development, the quality of teaching and student achievement and the role teachers can play in making a difference in the quality of education (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2007; Goldhaber, 2002; Rodrigues-Campos, Rincones-Gomes & Shen, 2005). A survey by the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) recognises the importance of extensive teacher induction support for beginning teachers during their first few years (Moskowitz & Stephens, 1997).

Induction programmes are mandatory in many countries and they focus on building strong professional relationships among beginning and veteran teachers, as well as the development of teaching practice (National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future, 2005, as cited in Howe, 2006). Although teacher induction in New Zealand was in operation in the 1970s, it was not until the mid-1980 that it was developed in what Main and Hill (2007) termed a ‘more organised, humanistic’ system based on an individualistic approach which is funded by the Ministry of Education. New Zealand now has a well-established induction programme to “support the provision of nationally consistent, high quality, and comprehensive support for provisionally Registered Teachers (PRTs) in their first few years of practice to enable them to become fully registered teachers” (NZTC, 2011, p. 1).

There is a “positive relationship” between “induction and retention” as well as the “relationship between experiences in the early years of teacher’s career and

future practice” (Langdon, 2007, p. 1). The induction of new teachers involves more than an orientation meeting with a principal or senior staff member, and will require involvement in the broader school culture and systems.

Wong, Britton and Ganser (2005) on the other hand describe teacher induction as a “highly organised and comprehensive form of staff development, involving many people and components, that typically continues for the first two to five years of a teacher’s career” (p. 379) while Langdon (2007) defines teachers’ induction as a process that provides support for beginning teachers to advance their teaching and learning in schools. Accordingly, the NZTC (2010) defines induction as a “comprehensive and educative framework of support provided to provisionally registered teachers as they begin their teaching practice in real situations” (p. 1). Induction therefore encompasses the orientation of newly recruited employees to the workplace, socialization, mentoring, and orientation and guidance from more experienced teachers.

## **Purpose of Teacher Induction**

Teaching is a complex work that cannot be fully learned in the short period of pre-service teacher education (Feiman-Neimser, 2001a; Ganser, 2002; Gold, 1999). Examples of highly professionally induction programmes are very common, such as an internship at a law firm or a hospital residency in a medical programme when novices benefit from an educational approach that incorporates individual support to encourage observation, critical reflection, and new ways of thinking about working with clients and patients (Kelley, 2004). In light of this, new teachers would benefit from structured continuous opportunities to develop their professional knowledge and skills usually provided in the form of mentoring from veteran teachers (Darling-Hammond, Hammerness, Grossman, Rust, & Shulman, 2005, as cited in Chu, 2012).

Various studies have indicated that beginning teachers who receive some type of induction and mentoring generally experience higher levels of job satisfaction, commitment, and retention within the profession (Cohen & Fuller, 2006) as well as greater student achievement gains (Fletcher & Strong, 2009). Likewise, teacher induction fulfils the purpose of assisting beginning teachers so they can realise their potential to become part of the teaching profession. Howe (2006) insists that effective induction programmes for new teachers will benefit both the teacher and the teaching profession. These benefits are distinguished as “attracting better candidates; reduced attrition; enhanced professional development and improved teaching and learning” (p. 287).

Furthermore, it is crucial for an effective teacher induction programme to be ‘comprehensive, educative and evaluative’ and to ‘provide opportunity for formative and progressive feedback to all provisional registered teachers (NZTC, 2011, pp. 9-10). Effective induction requires high-quality mentoring and a supportive school environment, tailored to fit new teachers’ individual needs.

## **Transition from student to teacher**

“The first years of teaching are an intense and formative time in learning to teach, influencing not only whether people remain in teaching but what kind of teacher they become” (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a, p. 1026).

Unlike other professions, newly graduated teachers are required to be fully responsible for their own classes from the day they walk into their classrooms. Unfortunately new graduates have generally been left to “sink or swim” while learning as they teach often by “trial and error” (Little, 1990, as cited in Killeavy, 2006, p. 168). Eisner (2002) further reiterated that “ultimately, the growth of students will go no further than the growth of those who teach them” (p. 384).

Although most teachers have learned relevant theories and strategies during pre-service training, many still struggle with the practical application of their knowledge.

Bush is of the opinion that:

The conditions under which a person carries out the first years of teaching have a strong influence on the level of effectiveness which the teacher is able to achieve and sustain over the years; on the attitudes which govern teachers' behaviour over even a forty year career; and, indeed, on the decision whether or not to continue in the teaching profession (Bush, 1983, p.3, as cited in Feiman-Nemser, 2001a).

Those first years of teaching have been characterized as survival, discovery, and adaptation and learning (Feiman-Nemser, & Beasley, 1998). Different ways of thinking exist such that, novices rely on trial and error to work out strategies that help them to survive. They continue to depend on these strategies or “apprenticeship of observation” (p.274) whether or not they represent best practice (Lortie, 1975, as cited in Borg, 2004). One of the consequences of this apprenticeship viewpoint is that the experiences of beginning teaching and the lessons they have to learn derive from a complex interaction of personal and situational factors. By implication this brings a shift in role orientation and a move from knowing about teaching and being confronted by day-to-day challenges (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a).

Many beginning teachers start their teaching careers with a great deal of optimism by taking full responsibility for the day-to-day running of their own classroom facing immediate disciplinary and managerial issues, plus the challenge of “sink or swim” with little or no support (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). Since teaching as a profession is so complex, novice teachers need someone who can “show them the ropes,” develop their competence and understanding, and help them to fit in the school community (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2000).



In the last two decades there has been a paradigm shift in the minds of educationists that teachers are more effective when they can learn from and be supported by a strong community of colleagues. It is obvious, that new teachers would benefit greatly from mentoring to develop new insight into their teaching pedagogy while at the same time placing a bigger commitment to the craft of teaching and their career (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2000).

## **Mentoring**

Although the description of mentorship can be traced back to Greek mythology, most of its usefulness has only been realised within the last few decades. The notion of mentoring can be traced back to Odysseus, who sought counsel for his son Telemachus through his friend Mentor.

One of the most influential and frequently cited scholars Kathy Kram is considered the “Maven of mentoring” (Kram & Isabella, 1995). Current literature has explored mentorships in several directions including the phases of mentorship (Kram, 1983), organizational values, norms, knowledge, and skills (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007) leading to a better adjustment, job attitudes, and job performance (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007).

Although the definition of mentoring is so diverse, a commonality exists amongst them as an ‘on-going supportive relationship’ that may develop through formal and informal arrangements. In general the term mentoring implies a relationship that is long lasting, on-going, and mutually agreeable. Despite the presence of several different definitions for mentoring in the literature, Hobson, Ashby, Malderez and Tomlinson (2009) define mentoring as:

The one-to-one support of a novice or less experienced practitioners (mentee) by a more experienced practitioner (mentor), designed primarily to assist the

development of the mentee's expertise and to facilitate their induction into the culture of the profession and into the specific local context (p. 207).

According to Ball (2000) (as cited in Peeler & Jane, 2005), mentoring has the potential to "bridge the gap between newcomers' past understandings and unfamiliar" (p. 327) and while at the same time providing "positive social benefits for the entire institutional community" (p.327). When new teachers are not confident with institutional values and innate knowledge, tension occurs between knowing and not knowing what is expected of them.

In a study by Peeler and Jane (2005) they mentioned the case of Young Mi, an experienced teacher from Korea who completed her teaching studies in Australia. While teaching, Young Mi became aware of the complex nature in the educational system of Korea and Australia. She realized that her prior knowledge has failed to equip her to teach in a regional secondary school in Victoria. She commented that:

"[The] teaching environment is quite different... I have to learn the Australian education system. I have studied at university in Australia but it's really quite different to what I have learnt so that's why it's quite a hassle to me" (Young Mi) (p. 331).

## **Benefits of Mentoring**

Whether a novice teacher or an overseas trained teacher, everyone is in agreement that mentoring provides the "novice" with "knowledge, advice, counsel, challenge, and support in the protégé's pursuit of becoming a full member of a particular profession" (Johnson, 2006, p. 20, as cited in Johnson, 2007). Through the mentoring process, mentors make an investment of time, grow personally and professionally while gaining personal satisfaction, confidence, and self-esteem (Peeler & Jane, 2005).

Being outsiders in a “new” teaching community, OTTs have to establish and form new relationships. Alfred (2001) argues that the development of such a “relationship with significant members of the culture, the participants learned its rules and expectations, and such knowledge facilitated their membership into the culture” (p. 120) giving them a “competitive advantage for developing the competency necessary to successfully meet academic cultural expectations” (p.119). While researching the effectiveness of induction on beginning teachers in New Zealand, Aitken et al., (2008) describe mentoring as “vital to their progression and the eventual completion of their teacher registration” (p.25). After a two year national pilot programme undertaken by the NZTC (2011), there was conclusive evidence that a high quality mentoring programme therefore is “relationship-based, focused on educative mentoring, recognised and resourced” (p. 10).

According to Hargreaves and Fullan (2000) mentoring must “address the needs of all teachers new to a district or school, not just beginning teachers” (p. 55) and should not be a once off encounter. Mentoring also constitutes an important component in the preparation and continuous development of teachers, and can be regarded as a momentous part of the socialisation process for a teacher when shifting from being a student of teaching to a teacher of students (Bush & Middlewood, 2013).

During the past decade, researchers have seen the crucial value of mentoring and collaboration on the professional development of teachers (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a). Research shows that mentor programmes can have positive effects on teacher retention helping new teachers to successfully move through the challenging first five years of teaching (Carr, Herman & Harris, 2005). Not only does mentoring provide support to the PRTs in their new role as a teacher, it also offers veteran teachers the opportunity to “reflect, focus and inquire into their own and others

professional learning and practice” (NZTC, 2011, p. 15). Special needs teachers, in particular, benefit from mentors in order to assist them to deal with the unique needs of students and their disabilities (Nickson & Kritsonis, 2006).

Highly quality mentoring is relationship-based, matching novice teachers with an experienced mentor in an environment where they can work together, in the same grade level or subject area (Johnson & Kardos, 2005; NZTC, 2011). It is however, important that mentors have contextual knowledge of the ākonga the PRTs are teaching, including “cultural background of individuals and of the communities” the ākonga are from (NZTC, 2011, p. 17). Mentoring simply implies giving novice teachers’ ideas about instruction, ideas for additional techniques on classroom management and to improve their teaching performance.

### **Essential qualities of a mentor**

There is a plethora of evidence that new teachers are in need of support and guidance during the first few years of teaching and such assistance can only come from more experienced colleagues who can play a crucial role in helping these teachers succeed (Bartell, 2005; Ewing & Smith, 2003).

At the cornerstone of any effective helping relationship is empathy. As early as 1958, Carl Rogers (as cited in Rowley, 1999) pointed out that, empathy means accepting another person without making judgments. In its simplest form, empathy means setting aside, at least temporarily, personal beliefs and values. Rowley identifies six basic but essential qualities of the good mentor. The good mentor – is committed to the role of mentoring; is accepting of the beginning teacher; is skilled at providing instructional support; is effective in different interpersonal contexts; is a model of a continuous learner and communicates hope and optimism. Bartell (2005) also states that these mentors may be successful in such mentoring positions because

they are able to listen, give advice, encourage, demonstrate practices, and brainstorm with novice teachers on a wide variety of issues.

However, according to Hargreaves and Fullen (2000), mentorship involves much more than mere giving guidance to the novice through their initial induction, they also have to provide continuous emotional support. A strong mentor will assist in the adequate preparation of newly appointed professionals into their chosen professions. According to the guidelines set out by the NZTC (2011), a successful mentor should be the type of person who “has a sound knowledge and skill base for their role and can establish respectful and effective mentoring relationships” and cannot work in isolation but “are well supported by their employer, professional leader, and professional learning community” (p. 15).

They should furthermore be capable of carrying out demonstration lessons and provide constructive feedback. For novice teachers to move from provisionally registered status to fully registered teacher, it is expected that they will be involved in “on-going professional, self-reflection, learning and development” and in the fulfilment of this requirement, it is expected that mentors “observe the PRT, provide feedback against specific criteria and facilitate the PRT’s ability to reflect on that feedback” (NZTC, 2011, p. 5 & p. 16). An effective mentor is therefore, a person that has quality communication skills, relationship skills, and collegiality, while mentors “have a deep understanding of teaching and learning” ... “know how to help classroom teachers grow” and bring to the mentoring relationship the “gift of time, mutual trust and personal attributes such as a positive caring attitude and a sense of confidentiality” (Moir & Bloom, 2003, p. 60).

## **Enhance Teachers' Professional Development**

The most powerful form of learning, the most sophisticated form of staff development, comes not from listening to the good works of others, but from sharing what we know with others...By reflecting on what we do, by giving it coherence, and by sharing and articulating our craft knowledge, we make meaning, we learn (Roland Barth, as cited in Costa & Kallick, 2008, p. 317)

A decade ago, the debate on school quality has increasingly focused on teachers' professional development. Studies by Stigler and Stevenson (1991) looked at mathematics teaching in Japan, Taiwan, and the United States of America. They note:

[One of the] reasons Asian class lessons are so well crafted is that there is a very systematic effort to pass on the accumulated wisdom of teaching practice to each new generation of teachers and to keep perfecting that practice by providing teachers the opportunities to continually learn from each other (p. 46).

In the past, work-related learning opportunities for pre-service teachers were called "in-service training" or "staff development". These days it is called "professional development". Professional development (PD) evokes images of teachers implementing new programmes in response to external intervention. According to Feiman-Nemser (2001a), the term "professional development" has a double meaning. Firstly, it encompasses the actual learning opportunities which teachers engage in – content and pedagogy and secondly it refers to the learning that occurs when teachers participate in these activities. As such, she states that professional development leads to "transformations in teacher knowledge, understanding, skills and commitments, in what they know and what they are able to do in their individual practice as well as in their shared responsibilities" (p. 1038).

Thompson and Zeuli (1999) add an extra layer to the meaning of professional development by connecting teachers' learning to the collective learning of the profession. They exemplify professional development as "learning by widening circles of teachers, so that it is not only these teachers' knowledge but the whole profession that develops" (p. 367). Underlining this definition is a view of teachers as constructors of knowledge and transformers of culture.

Generally professional development opportunities for staff take two forms; delegate staff development by school districts and outside "agents" or universities. Therefore, the overarching benefit of professional development rests on the quality of learning in which teachers "get" knowledge or skills from outside experts which they "apply" in their work. In line with this the Australian Department of Education and Training insist that all teachers continually learn more about their practice where they have a professional responsibility to continually improve their knowledge and understanding about their teaching, and translate that knowledge into practice (Raghuram, 2004). Modern views of professional development characterise professional learning not as a short-term intervention, but as a long-term process extending from teacher education at university to in-service training at the workplace (Ball & Cohen, 1999; Feiman-Nemser, 2001a; Putnam & Borko, 2000).

Wong et al., (2005) emphasised that teachers should be lifelong learners, an indication that teachers need to strive to be engaged in continuous learning to increase their teaching practice. High-quality professional development (PD) is a central component in nearly every modern proposal for improving education. Professional development programmes across educational departments around the world vary widely in their content and format. Most PDs have at their core aim to transform teachers' knowledge about their practice for the benefit of their students' growth (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Korthagen, 2004; Penlington, 2008).

Ultimately the goal of any professional development programme is to bring about systemic change in the classroom practices of teachers, in their attitudes and beliefs, and enhance the learning outcomes of all students. However, research has shown that professional development does not always produce the results expected pointing at the ineffectiveness of superficial staff development programmes (Cohen & Hill, 2000; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2007). A variety of factors unquestionably contribute to this ineffectiveness. Guskey (1986, as cited in Guskey, 2002) notes that the majority of programmes fail because they do not take into consideration the two crucial factors: (1) what motivates teachers to engage in professional development, and (2) the process by which change in teachers typically occurs.

Teachers, irrespective of the level of training or teaching, report that they engage in these activities because they want to become better teachers and see professional development as the most promising and most readily available route to growth on the job (Fullan, 1993, 2007) and a pathway to increased competence and greater professional satisfaction (Guskey, 2002). Teachers are of the opinion that becoming a better teacher means enhancing student learning outcomes. A study undertaken more than three decades ago by Harootunian and Yargar (1980, as cited in Guskey, 2000) to ascertain teachers' perceptions of success found that, "regardless of the teaching level, most teachers define their success in terms of their pupils' behaviours and activities, rather than in terms of themselves or other criteria" (p. 4).

According to the teachers participating in the study, they are attracted to professional development based on their belief that it will expand their knowledge and skills, contribute to their growth, and enhance their effectiveness with students. An important factor why many professional development programmes fail is the process of teacher change. Since professional development activities frequently are



designed to initiate change in teachers' attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions these programmes often attempt to change teachers' beliefs about certain aspects of teaching or the desirability of a particular curriculum or instructional innovation. The assumption is that such changes in teachers' attitudes and beliefs will lead to specific changes in their classroom behaviour and practice, which in turn will result in improved student learning.

Many scholars claim that principals must initiate “ job-embedded professional development for teachers” which “includes both informal and formal interactions among teachers who develop lessons, share instructional strategies, examine student work, analyse achievement data, and observe each other and give feedback” (Hord, Hirsh & Roy, 2005, p. 3 & p. 19). Evidently, teachers became committed to the new practices only after they had actively engaged in using them in their classrooms. Crandall (1983) (as cited in Guskey, 2002) agrees with Hord et al., (2005) and supports the idea that change in teachers' attitudes takes place primarily after some change in student learning has been evidenced.

### **Becoming professional - Teacher as Lifelong learner**

“If you dare to teach, you must never cease to learn”

(Wong, 2002, p.53).

The last 20 years has seen a huge growth in research based on what constitutes effective teaching. It is widely accepted by educationists that professional development should be a lifelong process rather than being limited to a relatively short period of the teaching journey (Day, 2002). Bartell (1995) (as cited in Feiman-Nemser, 2001a), cautions that “no matter what initial preparation they receive, teachers are never fully prepared for classroom realities and for

responsibilities associated with meeting the needs of a rapidly growing increasingly diverse population” (pp. 28-29).

Various studies in the 1980s have shown that teachers with adequate training are able to implement a variety of innovative programmes (Borko, 2004; Gordon, 2004). While most professional development programmes share a common purpose to “alter the professional practices, beliefs, and understanding of school persons towards an articulated end” (Griffin, 1983, p.2), one of the hallmarks of being identified as a professional is to continue to learn throughout your career.

Broadly speaking, professional development encompasses all “informal and formal interactions among teachers” (Hord et al., 2005, p. 19). Day (2002) argues that professional development consists of all “natural learning experience and those conscious and planned activities that are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group or school and which, through these, to quality of education in the classroom” (p. 4).

Professional development is arguably the responsibility of both individual teachers and the school in which they work. Any teacher who has worked in more than one school will agree that the training and development culture may be quite different from one school to another. There is an expectation amongst educators across the world for teachers to remain current and up to date with the professional literature and to integrate research with practice (Simmons, Kuykendall, King, Cornachione, & Kameenui, 2000). Given the recurrent demand for change, it is not surprising that there is a call for professional development that is both on-going and dynamic (Fullan, 1993) and dependent upon and growth, changes, as well as a willingness to reflect upon actions that evaluate the impact of the changes made (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2000).

Historically, teacher change has been directly linked with planned professional development activities (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002). Professional development became a major enterprise in education consisting mostly of ‘one-shot’ workshops aimed at teacher mastery of prescribed skills and knowledge. Researchers Clement and Vandenberghe (2000), Collinson (2000), Desimone (2009), Guskey (2000) have highlighted the ineffectiveness of professional development programmes that have an overemphasis on the ‘one-shot’ deficit approach.

Others, including Dadds (1997), Fullan (2007), Lovitt and Clarke (1988) (as cited in Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002), have provided convincing evidence of the failure of “one-shot” professional development approaches. They all emphasized that professional development is one of ongoing and life-long professional learning for teachers. Jackson (1974) (as cited in Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002) referred to it as a “professional growth approach” to professional development, where “the motive for learning is more about teaching and not to repair a personal inadequacy as a teacher, but to seek greater fulfilment as a practitioner of the art” (p. 26). Similarly, Schön (1984) emphasized the importance of ongoing, critical reflection in teaching, in his notion of teachers as “reflective practitioners”.

### **Reflective practitioner – Feedback from self**

“As educators, we cannot make decision about what we need to change if we do not step back and examine what we do” (Barry, 1997, p. 524).

Teachers learn by doing, reading and reflecting (just as students do); collaborating with other teachers; by looking and listening closely to students and their work; and by sharing what they see. This enables teachers to connect from theory to practice. As such, teaching means continuously being thoughtful about how we support the learning of others, as well as our own learning (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 2011).

Reflection is a process of turning back on experience. Significant learning allows teachers to think about their teaching and about ways to continually develop and implement curriculum that is personally meaningful and culturally relevant to students (Allington, 2002). 'Reflection' leans heavily on the ideas of Dewey (1933) (as cited in Rodgers, 2002) who in turn influenced Schön (1984), who contended that knowledge is acquired in the "midst of the action itself", rather than retrospectively. When we reflect, we aim to recognise that the mistakes often generate learning opportunities. In this regard, Britzman (2003, p. 4) highlighted the importance of second thoughts. This involves running through and over ideas repetitively in order to draw more from the ideas and theorize from them, looking for sound reasons to test and explain patterns of action.

Schön (1984) contends that reflective practitioners generally know more than they say, and demonstrate a kind of knowing in action. He describes it as unspoken or 'tacit' knowledge, where we draw on knowledge to act in conflict-ridden or uncertain situations. However, we do not always trust this tacit knowledge, nor is it readily in store and often beginning teachers have to draw on ideas of trusting like-minded colleagues. Brookfield and Brookfield (1995) is of the opinion that as teachers we reflect when we view our own teaching through the eyes of others. This can be confronting and they note that seeing ourselves through the eyes of others can be "one of the most consistently surprising elements in any teachers' career" (p.33).

Empathy, or the ability to identify with another point of view, is an important element of any teachers capacity to grow as a learner, as illustrated by Harper Lee. He encapsulated this idea through the wisdom of Atticus, father to Jem and Scout in the novel, *To Kill a Mockingbird*. He argued that the value of being someone else for a while is hard "until you stand in his shoes and walk around in them" (Lee, 1960, as cited in Latham, Blaise, Dole, Faulkner, & Malone, 2011, p. 279).

However, we often try to avoid such feelings because they challenge what we know and feel safe with. Boler (2004) refers to this feeling of being unsettled as a “pedagogy of discomfort” where we feel pushed in a situation and at the same time experience “fear of change, and fears of losing our personal and cultural identities” (p. 176). She argues that this discomfort asks us to leave the familiar waters of learnt beliefs and explore the riskier critical depths of differences. She reiterates that in order to learn we have to experience the uneasiness of being in uncomfortable positions to ‘unlearn’ the known. In order to successfully ‘unlearn’ the known, we need a constructive and metacognitive approach to observe how to understand something new.

### **Culture of the school**

Most teachers would agree that the better we know our students, the more likely we are to respond more appropriately with instruction (Eisner, 2002). Immigrant teachers, bring unique histories that reflect their own understanding. For overseas teachers to grow, they have to acquire new knowledge to understand the social elements of learning and teaching in local contexts and to apply them appropriately.

Although student diversity is a hallmark of classrooms, many overseas trained teachers have little or no experience in cross-cultural settings and bring limited and / or inaccurate knowledge of their students’ cultural backgrounds to the classroom (Castro, 2010; Gay, 2010; Sleeter, 2008; Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Furthermore, Kostogriz and Peeler (2007) acknowledge the “huge cultural leaps between work practices in their own cultures, and teachers must learn how to make sense of the new professional space” (p. 9). Even though they have sufficient professional knowledge of teaching, they are unfamiliar with work conditions and, as

a minority group in their school community, immigrant teachers often need to acculturate to the school culture (Santoro et al., 2001). They caution “novice” teachers not to ‘devalue’ the efforts made by senior teachers which according to Goodson (2003) can mentally disengage the senior teachers who in turn “kept their professional knowledge to themselves and the chain of professional transmission was broken – causing the ‘layers of unquantifiable knowledge, acquired through years of experience’ to remain un-transmitted to the new generation of teachers” (p. 81).

As such, becoming a teacher creates opportunities for collaboration where teachers can develop and shape complex mentoring roles that meet beginning teachers' needs leading to continuous changes in beliefs, attitudes, and growth while endeavouring to understand the philosophies underpinning the educational culture, skills and competencies (Carter & Francis, 2001; Harris, 2003). Even though overseas trained teachers may bring global perspectives, they may also have significant problems understanding and connecting to the culture of the new country and the “hidden school culture”.

Two empirical studies by Finney, Torres, and Jurs (2002) in Spain and Hutchinson (2005) in South Carolina looked at overseas trained teacher recruitment by following overseas trained teachers employed by private schools. Both studies were conclusive that the teachers experienced difficulties with classroom management and discipline; lack of awareness about school procedures and policies; new instructional strategies, curricula, and philosophies; and culture shock. However, Finney et al., (2002) found that the results of their study were “overwhelmingly positive,” and the teachers, their mentors, and their principals all were in agreement that they valued the input native Spanish speakers had in international language classrooms.

## Cultural Shock

Culture shock is a rather nerve-wracking phenomenon. It can be described as the feelings one experiences after leaving their familiar, home culture to live in another cultural or social environment. However, it is an essential part of the transition process and Oberg (2006) defines it as an “anxiety that results from losing familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse” (p. 142). Sandhu and Asrabadi (1994) lists two main causes of culture shock - *intrapersonal factors*: a profound sense of loss (family and friends); a sense of inferiority; a sense of uncertainty (about the future) and *interpersonal factors*: communication (language and social skills); cultural shock (differences in expectations and social norms); loss of social support systems (particularly from family); miscellaneous factors such as education and immigration difficulties; making friends and establishing social support networks.

Studies by Ward, Bochner, and Furnham (2001) concluded that foreign migrants face several difficulties, some exclusive to them (as opposed to native students). Ward, Bochner, and Furnham (2001) argue that besides being away from the familiar culture foreign migrants, also face problems that often confront people living in a foreign culture, such as racial discrimination, language problems, accommodation difficulties, separation reactions, dietary restrictions, financial stress, misunderstandings and loneliness. It is certainly worth noting from their study that for many migrants the 'overseas' experience is enormously beneficial and can shape their outlook for the rest of their lives. Many, foreign migrants say it was one of their most profound life experiences, leaving them very positively disposed to other cultures, the town or city it was in and the country as a whole. Whatever negative culture shock they may have experienced early on was soon overcome, and mostly only positive experiences recalled.

Elbaz-Luwisch (2004) points out that adjusting to another culture often involves making mistakes through misunderstanding. She argues that “learning the codes of behaviour of the school culture is something that all new teachers must do, but for teachers who have not been schooled in the culture this process is doubly complicated and inevitably more self-conscious” (p.397). Remennick (2003) agrees that “work in education is deeply embedded in local culture, mentality, and language” and teachers “whose work experience has been gained in another country face a great challenge adapting to the new school system” (p.101). There is little evidence that indicates how schools designed programmes to support overseas trained teachers to adjust to the cultural shift. Porat (1996) (as cited in Michael, 2006) argues that “support is crucial for them [immigrant teachers] in the beginning years in order to aid them to grow accustomed to the formal structure of school” (p.167) but does not clarify what type of support they need nor does he indicate how schools implement this support.

Studies of immigrants in transition indicates that “most people who cross cultures would benefit from some kind of systematic preparation and training to assist them in coping with culture-contact induced stress” (Ward et al., 2001, p. 248). A study by Jhagroo (2004) claims that:

“participants see cultural sensitivities and understanding as being fundamental in gaining a complete picture of the New Zealand education system and they saw it as an important factor that could be included in the induction programme for South African trained teachers” (p. 68).

In her research, she also emphasized the importance of teachers’ awareness, knowledge and the place of the Treaty of Waitangi in education. She notes that “knowledge of the Treaty is a legal professional requirement and as such should be



incorporated into an induction programme for all immigrant teachers” (p. 84). The Treaty of Waitangi is considered to be an important source of the founding principles of New Zealand and *New Zealand Curriculum* has the Treaty as one of its eight principles. According to the Ministry of Education (2012)

“The curriculum acknowledges the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi and the bicultural foundations of Aotearoa New Zealand. All students have the opportunity to acquire knowledge of te reo Māori me ōna tikanga” (p. 9).

A recent Education Review Office report (2011) states that many school leaders and teachers are finding the Treaty of Waitangi principle challenging to implement. As school leadership and teachers work to enact the Treaty of Waitangi they may find it helpful to consider one of the three broad principles that suggested partnership, protection, and participation as part of the induction programme. According to Wilson (2002) (as cited in Averill, Easton, Anderson, & Hynds, 2004) partnership includes “consulting with Māori and valuing their input, protection as including acknowledging and prompting Māori language and custom, and participation as encompass ensuring accessibility for Māori community and that Māori children achieve success” (p. 56).

## **Culturally Responsive Practice**

During the last three decades the world has seen its largest influx of immigrants causing a dramatic demographic shift in the student population at schools across the world and researchers shows schools and educators are challenged to find ways to work with students from culturally, racially, and linguistically diverse backgrounds ensuring that they receive high quality education (Gay, 2002; Jordan, 1995; Ladson-Billings, 1995).

Educators have implemented a modified system that has been referred to as culturally compatible (Jordan, 1995), culturally congruent (Au & Kawakami, 1994), culturally relevant (Ladson-Billings, 1995), and culturally responsive teaching (Erickson, 1987). For this study the researcher will use the term culturally responsive practice used by Gay (2002).

Gay (2002) is of the opinion that the academic achievement of students from cultural and linguistic diverse backgrounds would excel only when teachers made an effort to conduct classroom instruction in such a manner that it is responsive to the students' home cultures. She identified five key areas that will ensure that teachers connect with students' cultural and linguistic diverse backgrounds (i.e., developing a culturally diverse knowledge base, designing culturally relevant curricula, demonstrating cultural caring and building a learning community, building effective cross-cultural communications, and delivering culturally responsive instruction). In light of the above, Gay (2002) is of the opinion that culture encompasses many things, some of which are more important for teachers to know than others because they have direct implications for successful teaching and learning.

Both Bazron, Osher, and Fleischman (2005) and Brown (2007) believe that culture deeply influences the way children learn when teachers are given the responsibility of teaching students from diverse backgrounds while simultaneously reflecting on having appreciation for the students' diverse culture. Bazron et al., (2005) caution that as teachers we have to be "sensitive to the cultural shifts that an immigrant student, or other students with minority family and community cultures, must make as they move between school and home" (p. 84).

More recently Gay (2002), Ladson-Bilings (2001), Villegas and Lucas (2002), in particular, attempt to list the characteristics of culturally responsive

teachers (CRT). Ladson-Billings (2001) argues that teachers have to focus on individual students' academic achievement, have attained cultural competence and help in developing students' cultural competence while at the same time developing a sense of socio-political consciousness.

Gay (2002) expands on these by noting that CRTs develop a cultural diversity knowledge base and further design culturally relevant curricula, and responsive teaching while demonstrating cultural caring, and build a learning community while also in same process establishing cross-cultural communications. Villegas and Lucas (2002) expanded even further on the work of Gay (2002) and Ladson-Billings (2001) reporting that for teachers to becoming culturally responsive they have to understand how learners construct knowledge and are capable of promoting learners' knowledge construction; know about the lives of their students; and use their knowledge about students' lives to design instruction that builds on what they already know while stretching them beyond the familiar.

A fundamental aspect of culturally responsive teachers, according to Gay (2002), is when teachers use the cultural characteristics, experiences, and perspectives of ethnically diverse students and teach them more effectively. This eventually results in an increment in the academic achievement of ethnically diverse students when classroom instruction is delivered through their own cultural and experiential filters (Au & Kawakami, 1994; Gay, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 2001). Culturally responsive practitioners will therefore use differentiated methods to tailor their teaching to the different needs and backgrounds of their students (Foorman, 2003; Tunmer, Chapman, & Prochnow, 2003) without resorting to separating or adopting a one-size- fit all mentality.

## **Culturally Responsive Classrooms**

With the migration explosion the demographic of society has seen changes which have influenced the way teachers teach and what students do in their classrooms (Kozleski, Sobel, & Taylor, 2003). Today's classroom is more responsive to the needs of students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds therefore the shift in ethnic demographics has important implications for schools and, more importantly, classroom teachers. Gay and Howard (2001) emphasises that teachers must face the reality that they will continue to come into contact with students whose cultural, ethnic, linguistic, racial, and social class backgrounds are different from their own.

According to Montgomery (2001), culturally responsive classrooms are those that “specifically acknowledge the presence of culturally diverse students and the need for these students to find connections among themselves and with the subject matter and the tasks the teacher asks them to perform” (p. 4). Montgomery highlights three aspects that culturally responsive classroom display (a) teachers who believe that their students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds want to learn (b) instructional strategies and teaching used by the teacher can engage the students and lead to improved academic achievement and (c) every teacher should strive to develop instructional programmes and activities that prevent failure and increase success in all of their students. Elmore (2000) argues that to bring about a true transformation of the current educational system, teachers need a better understanding of culturally responsive practices and the potential that it holds to improve student learning outcomes.

Research suggested that schools and university faculties provide pre-service training to teachers' partner in professional development by mentoring, supporting,

and evaluating teachers' abilities to practice culturally responsive and differentiated instruction. Chamberlain (2005) has proposed strategies that would assist school principals who are willing to transform their schools into culturally responsive learning environments. Chamberlain is of the opinion that schools should implement and encourage policies that view diversity as an asset for schools; provide staff development on best practices for teaching students, with and without disabilities, from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds; provide teachers with ongoing opportunities to collaboratively explore best practice in culturally responsive pedagogy; and resist political pressures for exempting students from taking tests, and resist pressure to teach to the test.

In addition, Smylie, Conley and Marks (2002) stated that increased student learning can only be achieved if teachers receive consistent support from their school leaders. To make sure that teachers are adequately prepared when they enter today's classrooms, teacher preparation programmes should continue to build on the knowledge bases mentioned above that contain the special knowledge, skills, processes, and experiences essential for preparing teachers to be successful when teaching students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds and use that knowledge to prepare teachers for today's classrooms (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000).

There is a pressing need amongst educators and schools for professional development that supports New Zealand teachers to build positive, honest and mutual learning relationships with students, particularly students from different cultural backgrounds different from their own (Glynn, Cavanagh, Macfarlane, & Macfarlane, 2011). Building such a relationship is a central component of culturally responsive pedagogy and the adoption of a cultural responsive stance will ensure that teachers "listen to culture" (Macfarlane, 2004) which further create classrooms that are safe havens where "culture counts" (Bishop & Glynn, 2003) and where

“culture speaks” (Bishop & Berryman, 2006). In these classroom all students but in particularly Māori students, can experience a sense of belonging contribution on the basis of their own cultural identity.

## **SUMMARY**

This literature review has identified various issues facing overseas trained teachers (for example: culture shock, becoming reflective practitioners, the importance of a educative mentoring and induction, problems and challenges that novice teachers experience, and so forth) who after teaching successfully in one country decided to immigrate to a foreign country with little or no understanding of the culture of the adapted country to pursuing a “new” teaching career. It is clear from the literature review that, there is extensive research into the induction and mentoring of mainstream teaching (Aitken et al., 2008; Biggs, 2010; Jhagroo, 2004; Vohra, 2005), however there is a lack of research literature focusing on induction of overseas trained teachers in the New Zealand special needs school context. Knowledge gained from investigating this “barren land” will add to the body of induction literature and may inform induction and mentoring programmes for these teachers and schools in this sector.

Peeler and Jane (2005) are of the opinion that “teachers who are born and trained overseas lack culturally specific educational knowledge” (p. 325) and to overcome these they need socio-cultural knowledge and suitable teaching techniques as professionals. The main concern from schools is to identify and design resources that will cater for the growing number of overseas trained teachers while also examining their current induction and mentoring programmes currently in operation in special needs schools in South Auckland. How schools design and resource

induction programmes to address these unique needs is the focus of this research because it “involves many people and components” (Wong et al., 2005, p. 379).

The next chapter will discuss the methods and methodology chosen for this study.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESEARCH Design / METHOD and METHODOLOGY

“Many people travelled with us in our journeys of experience and narrative...”

(Clandinin & Connelly, 2000, p. xvii).

#### OVERVIEW

According to Packwood and Sikes (1996) “using my experience as a starting point rather than as an end in itself...making sense of my own experiences ... is the essence of my story within the research story” (p. 342).

In this study I use myself, my journey, as a starting point, looking at my own experiences with “different” eyes, knowing that I have grown and learned and, as I have grown older, I can learn from my experiences and the experiences of others. This study is a partnership between other teachers and me, as the researcher, to refresh our pedagogy. The researcher’s own development and learning increased and expanded through using metacognition trying to see older practice anew. Conversations allowed the researcher to engage in reflection in one of two ways; either by ‘reflecting on action’, after the experience, or by ‘reflecting in action’, during the experience (Schön, 1983, as cited in Kinsella, 2010).

Using narrative stories retrospective thoughts bring back memories for migrant teachers that have been buried for many years. What is fascinating though is how we make connections with the way we had applied experiences to new practice and how we have used and implemented it in our teaching (Clandinin & Connelly, 1996). Accordingly, Ross (2008) (as cited in Huber, Caine, Huber & Steeves, 2013) is of the opinion that “storytelling is about survival” (p. 65) and we can “re-evaluate



situations we think we understand” (Cruikshank, 2005, p. 79, as cited in Huber et al., 2013).

The previous literature study on the induction and mentoring phenomenon, challenges and needs experienced by overseas teachers was undertaken to identify the gaps in the professional development for overseas trained teachers particularly those working for the first time in special education. This subsequent research study was of a qualitative, phenomenological, exploratory and descriptive nature to explore the lived experiences of overseas trained teachers. The purpose of the study was to investigate the “stories of our lives and the stories of the lives of others” using the narratives of eight overseas teachers new to special needs education in five South Auckland special needs schools.

## **METHODOLOGY**

### **Qualitative Research Strategy**

Using a qualitative mode of inquiry allowed the researcher to enter the “world” of the participants through interaction with them. It further provides information about the participants and about the “human” side of an issue such as the induction and mentoring experiences (Patton, 2002).

A variety of research methods can be used to conduct qualitative research, including ethnography, phenomenology, case study, narrative, and grounded theory. Describing the lived experience and narratives of overseas trained teachers into special needs teaching, a phenomenological approach was best suited. Accordingly, Creswell (2007) describes phenomenology as encompassing the endeavour to understand the meaning of an experience through describing the “core or essence” of the phenomena.

In an earlier study, Creswell (2003) argues that the characteristics of a qualitative inquiry include:

- a) Natural setting - where the researcher often goes to the participant's home or place of work, allowing the researcher to gain more detail about the individual and his/her space as well as to be more involved in the experiences of the participant.
- b) Emergent - research which is emergent rather than prefigured which entails that questions asked by the researcher may change as s/he learns better what should be asked and to whom it should be asked. Data collection may change as the study progresses
- c) Interpretation of the researcher. This may include a description of an individual or setting, analysing data for themes or categories and or drawing conclusions about its meaning (p.182).

A researcher chooses this method of data collection because the phenomenon being studied is new or has not been previously investigated. It enables participants to express themselves in their own words, allowing the researcher to more closely capture the individual's own subjective experiences and interpretations (Graebner, Martin, & Roundy, 2012).

### **Phenomenology**

Since phenomenology uses a naturalistic approach it seeks to understand phenomenon in context-specific settings while gaining information that may be difficult to convey quantitatively (Strauss & Corbin, 1997, as cited in Coyne, 1997). According to Patton (2002) "phenomenological study is one that focuses on descriptions of what people experience and how it is that they experience what they

experience” (p. 71). van Manen (1990) is of the opinion that the purpose of a phenomenological inquiry is “sober reflection on the lived experience of human existence sober, in the sense that reflecting on experience must be thoughtful, and as much as possible, free from theoretical, prejudicial and suppositional intoxications” (p. 12).

McAdams’s (1993) reiterates that: “The story is inside of us. It is made and remade in the secrecy of our own minds, both conscious and unconscious, and for our own psychological discovery and enjoyment” (p. 12). In this study, it was the researcher’s intention to explore the phenomenon of induction and mentoring of overseas trained teacher using a narrative inquiry.

### **Narrative Inquiry**

Using a narrative inquiry approach provides a research method that allow the researcher to get a picture of the experiences of the participants (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996) and to listen to the account of the participants. Instead of requesting direct responses to a question it allowed the researcher to scrutinise teachers’ stories while a further advantage is to “meet ourselves in the past, the present, and the future” (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000, p. 60; Clandinin, 2006). Another essential point made by Clandinin and Connelly (2000) is that “people are individuals and need to be understood as such, but they cannot be understood only as individuals. They are always in relation, always in a social context” (p. 2).

Clandinin and Connelly (2000), further state that narrative inquiry is:

...a way of understanding experience. It is collaboration between researcher and participants, over time, in a place or series of places, and in social interaction with milieus. An inquirer enters this matrix in the midst and progresses in the same spirit, concluding the inquiry still in the midst of living and telling, reliving and retelling, the stories of the experiences that made up people’s lives, both individual and social (p. 20).

By using narrative stories the researcher intended to inquire about the individual's experience in the world, an experience that has meaning both in the living and telling and that could be studied by listening, observing, living alongside another, writing and interpreting texts. The researcher chose this research approach as it is meaningful and well suited to the interview questions.

## **RESEARCH DESIGN**

### **Research Methods**

“Once a story is told, it cannot be called back. Once told, it is loose in the world. So you have to be careful with the stories that you tell. And you have to watch out for the stories that you are told” (King, 2003, p. 10).

This part of the chapter describes the methods utilised to bring to life the overseas trained teachers' stories of their experiences of induction and mentoring and specifically to explore the experiences of eight overseas trained teachers in five South Auckland special needs schools.

The design utilised in the reported study outlining the sample population including the inclusion and exclusion criteria for those participating, and the recruitment strategy employed is discussed. Ethical considerations are described to ensure adherence to ethical standards. This is followed with the method of data collection and techniques used for analysing the data concluding with strategies that were utilised to ensure trustworthiness and methodological rigor.

## **Sample Population**

Unlike quantitative methods that produce replicable, objective knowledge, the purpose of this qualitative method was, amongst other things, to examine the ways individual teachers experience the world, construct knowledge, and make meanings of their experience (Patton, 2002). Using a qualitative method made me aware that some participants have “richer information that enhances understanding of the problem under study” (Daniel, 2011, p. 77) and these people are more “likely to provide insight and understanding” for the study (Marshall, 1996, p. 523). Relatively small sample sizes are required due to the large volume of information that is collected and produced from participants which involves the selection of the most accessible subjects and the most productive sample to answer the research question (Silverman, 2013).

Similarly, Morse (2000, p. 4) stated that

There is an inverse relationship between the amount of useable data obtained from each participant and the number of participants. The greater the amount of useable data obtained from each person (as number of interviews and so forth), the fewer the number of participants.

Patton (2002) defines sampling as “the criteria used in selecting the ‘sample’ of people...from which you will collect the data and evidence for your research project” (p. 113). In this study the researcher utilised purposeful sampling for the recruitment of ‘information- rich’ overseas trained teachers for this in-depth study. According to Patton (2002) information-rich participants are “those from which one can learn a great deal about issues central to the purpose of the research” (p.114). Since there are more conventional sampling strategies that may be used to attract participants the researcher, used a “contact” who was a relevant and a key informant to provide the names of potential participants. Overall control of the selection of

participants was specifically spelled out by the researcher using selection criteria including that the participants needed to be overseas trained teachers with no prior special needs experience and were willing to share their experience about this phenomenon.

## **Setting and Participants**

The context chosen for this study was five special needs schools in South Auckland, New Zealand that provided special needs education to students with intellectual disability. In order to ensure that the study was feasible, five South Auckland Special needs schools were selected as representative of the wider population of Auckland Special needs schools. According to Coyne (1997) “sample selection has a profound effect on the ultimate quality of the research” (p.623) and in the selection process the researcher selected participants “who can and are willing to provide the information by virtue of knowledge or experience” (Bryman, 2012, p. 334). Various factors such as age, gender, status, role function in organization, stated philosophy or ideology were all taken into consideration in the selection process. However, the final selection was made from the schools whose principals indicated a willingness to be involved in this research study.

## **Sample size**

Qualitative sampling choices for research tend to be different from sampling choices for quantitative research. While looking for the ideal sampling collection method, the researcher had to weigh both the qualitative and quantitative research design against each other. While quantitative research involves “the collection and analysis of numerical data with more attention focused on generalization to a target population than understanding the nature of the elements selected for study”, qualitative research primarily involves the “collection and analysis of non-numerical

data, with more attention focused on understanding the nature of the ‘phenomenon’ selected for study” (Daniel, 2011, p. 14) which was more suitable for this study.

Even though there are “no absolute rules” for determining sample size, Patton (2002) cautions that as researchers there are “some practical guidelines in terms of what you want to know, the purpose of the inquiry, what is useful and credible, and what can be done with the resource available” (p. 185). In the selection of participants, the researcher selected participants according to the needs of the study (Glaser, 1998) in that the participants had a “richness” of information that enhances understanding of the problem under study (Patton, 2002). The purpose of this study was to ascertain the perceptions, experiences and views of the overseas trained teacher about their induction and mentoring experiences. The researcher selected only participants based on the following criteria. Participants had to:

- a) provide specialist teaching, and in most cases specialist services to high needs students in years level 1-13;
- b) teach at a base school and or teach in a satellite class on site at a regular school
- c) teach at a special needs school in South Auckland between 2000-2013 and
- d) have at least 10 years overseas teaching experience before commencing in special education.

Based on this, eight overseas trained teachers were approached by the researcher with the help of the principals and induction coordinators in five South Auckland special needs schools and given a participant invitation letter (Appendix A).

## **Access to Setting**

In preparation for interviewing potential participants, the researcher telephoned the schools and discussed the research project with the principal. Each school operates differently therefore gaining official access to the sites and participants was unique, and the researcher had to negotiate entry to the social structure (Berg & Lune 2004). An email was sent to the schools as an introduction outlining the research project, and asking permission to undertake the research project. Although official “gatekeepers” supervised the process, the researcher quickly learned that their permission did not earn him cooperation from the participants’. Bogdan and Biklen (2003) (as cited in Wanat, 2011) wrote that official permission to conduct a study may “be sabotaged by the subjects” (p. 76). Overcoming this, the researcher sought “permission” to “move out into new territories and meet new people” (p. 78) by contacting the principals.

Because each school operates differently the purpose of the projects was initially minuted in the week/day books of the schools for teachers to read and respond. It was however, only after the researcher followed up with a second email/telephone call that permission was granted for the project. Individual teachers who showed an interest to take part in the research study contacted the researcher via email.

At Chorus school (pseudonym) the induction coordinators identified all the possible participants and arranged a date and time for the participant to be interviewed during the September 2013 holiday in her office. All the other participants emailed the researcher directly showing an interest in the project. Most of the participants were interviewed at school during the holidays except for one who



preferred to be interviewed after school in the meeting room at the AUT South Campus.

## **Instruments of the Study**

The instrument used for data collection in this study was in the form of a two part researcher-designed interview guide intended to prompt answers from the participant. The first part (Appendix C – Interview Guide) outlined 16 interview questions structured in such a way as to answer the overarching question: What are the induction and mentoring experiences of overseas trained teachers in South Auckland special needs schools?

The second part (Appendix D – Section 1 and 2) consisted of eight personal background questions and a tick box form which each participant had to complete beforehand by indicating yes, partly or no to questions about his/her experience of induction and mentoring.

## **Interview as a Qualitative Method of Data Generation**

As researchers we use different methods when conducting research and interviews are among the most familiar strategies for collecting qualitative data. Qualitative interviews can be unstructured, semi-structured and structured and for this study the researcher focused on a semi-structured format because structured interviews often produce quantitative data (Fontana & Frey, 2005). Maykut and Morehouse (1994) (as cited in Hossain, 2008) are of the opinion that interviewing in a natural setting emphasises understanding actions, words, deeds, and patterns in conversations. This research design allowed information collection in a natural setting through in-depth interviews.

Kvale (1996) (as cited in Anyan, 2013) defines qualitative research interviews as "an interview, whose purpose is to gather descriptions of the life-world of the interviewee with respect to interpretation of the meaning of the described phenomena" (p.174) and the primary objective is to have a conversation between two people (the interviewer and the interviewee). During an interview, participants provided detailed information in relation to their background and experiences of induction and mentoring: the phenomenon.

## **Interview Format**

Semi-structured interviews guided this study organised around a set of predetermined open-ended questions, with other questions emerging from the dialogue between the interviewer and interviewees. Since interviewing is such a complex task that requires careful preparation, consideration must be given to the very questions that will be asked, because "at the root of ...interviewing is an interest in understanding the experience of other people and the meaning they make of that experience" (Seidman, 2012, p. 3). Because of the intensity of research interviews, the researcher has to give attention to what is being said while also formulating questions as a result of the interactive nature of communication.

This interactive nature of communication, Wengraf (2001) coined "double attention", means:

that you must be both listening to the informant's responses to understand what he or she is trying to get at and, at the same time, you must be bearing in mind your needs to ensure that all your questions are liable to get answered within the fixed time at the level of depth and detail that you need (p. 194).

All participants were informed in advance that interview questions would be from the questionnaire and that detailed descriptions regarding each question would be required in interviews. The researcher designed and included a participant

invitation sheet (as illustrated in Appendix A) which was emailed to the participants prior to the interview date outlining the purpose of the study. Prior to the face-to-face interviews with each participant, a demographic form of relevant background data (as illustrated in Appendix D) and semi-structured interviews sheet, asking open-ended questions (as illustrated in Appendix C) was emailed to the participant to be filled out. Participants were asked to email back Appendix D to the researcher as part of the researcher's "interview guide" (Lofland & Lofland 2006). The "interview guide" helped ensure consistency in covering similar topics in a similar way for each interviewee. Each participant was contacted after one week via email to enquire if they were willing to participate in the study.

Upon receipt and review of Appendix D, a follow-up face-to face interview was conducted with individual participants to ask the participant to explain his/her ideas in more detail and/or elaborate on what he/she had stated in the questionnaire. Participants were advised in writing of the voluntary nature of their participation and that they could withdraw from the study at any time (Eyde, 2000). They were also advised that at any time during the process they could decline to answer any questions. A written signed consent form was obtained from each participant (as illustrated in Appendix B). Each participant was informed in writing of all data collection methods and activities. Written transcription and interpretation of the data was made available to participants. The participants' rights, interests and wishes were considered first when choices were made regarding reporting of data.

In addition to the voluntary nature of their participation, it was the researcher's responsibility to create a partnership that identified questions of mutual interest and to conduct research that reflected mutual input and derived outcomes that provided mutual benefit (Israel, Schulz, Parker, & Becker, 1998). During the interview process, the researcher recognised the participants' diversity, and

understood the importance of this diversity to the long term success of the partnership.

The participants' role was solely to share information about their experience of induction and mentoring in special needs teaching. After collection and transcription of data, participants were given an opportunity to debrief information given during the initial interview. The researchers emailed individual transcription to each participant to read, amend and add any information that he/she felt need clarification. This ensure there was no ambiguity or misinterpretation and also that the information reflect accurate statements made by participants.

### **Logistics of Interviewing**

According to Berg and Lune (2004), it is the responsibility of the researcher to “build rapport and trust with the interview subjects by being an attentive listener while also having a ‘sympathetic understanding’ of, and profound respect for, their thoughts, opinions, and perspectives” (p. 86). It became clear that at the heart of all types of interviewing is a partnership between the interviewer and the participant which form perhaps the single most important aspect of a qualitative research project, and it is through this relationship that all data was collected and data validity was strengthened (Adler & Adler, 2003; Kvale, 1996, as cited in Anyan, 2013). It is during these interviews that participants often expressed feeling guarded while discussing such experiences.

Another aspect of interviewing that needs attention is the relationship between interview mode and data. Olson (2011) refers to “interview mode” as the manner in which the interview data are obtained and the researchers have to choose the mode or modes that best describe the “phenomenon” under investigation. Interviews are summed up by various researchers as an “arrangement of talk and as

an encounter between people in different social situations and with different agendas and personal characteristics” (Warren et al., 2003, p. 94), or a performance that takes place on a stage (Kvale, 1996, as cited in Anyan, 2013). At the beginning of each interview, the researcher sets the stage by asking participants to share the reasons why they became a teacher.

Even though there are many modes of collecting data from participant (e.g. telephone or Skype interviewing), the researcher chose the face-to-face mode. Researchers, Musselwhite, Cuff, McGregor and King (2007) highlight the advantages of face-to-face interviews as (i) it helps maintain participant involvement more successfully than phone interviews (e.g., fewer dropouts) and (ii) it clarifies the information being communicated (e.g., those with hearing difficulties or those for whom English was not their first language may encounter fewer difficulties in face-to-face interviews; messages being conveyed nonverbally to the researcher).

Since both the researcher and participant are in the same room, I had access to more than just verbal data, the researcher was able to build a rapport that enabled participants to freely disclose their experiences more effectively than might occur using other “interview modes” such as phone interviews or internet (Skype) interviews (Carr & Worth, 2001; Hiller & DiLuzio, 2004; Shuy, 2003).

## **Recording the Interview**

There are various ways of recording qualitative interviews - notes written at the time, notes written afterwards, and audiotaping. The “technological boom” has changed the way researchers’ record interviews. All face-to-face interviews were tape recorded, of course with the permission of the interviewee. Following the recording of the interviews, tapes were labelled immediately ‘getting it on the record’ through the tape recorder, and then on to paper (Warren et al., 2003, p. 102). The

researcher adhered to the AUT Ethics Committee requirements for specific consent for tape-recording included in informed consent forms (Appendix B) that was signed prior to an interview.

The researcher became aware of the “private” nature of the recorded data and all interviews were transcribed verbatim and saved on his laptop attached to a secured password. All copies were saved on a USB stick and handed over to the researcher’s supervisor to store securely in her office for a period of six years before it can be destroyed.

Using a tape recorder has the advantage that the interview report is more accurate than writing out notes. But tape recording also brings with it the danger of not taking any notes during the interview. Taking notes during the interview is important for the interviewer, even if the interview is tape recorded: (i) to check if all the questions have been answered, (ii) in case of malfunction of the tape recorder, and (iii) in case of "malfunctioning of the interviewer". In one interview the researcher conducted he should have taken notes because he had forgotten to push the ‘record’ button. He then had to pull off the road after the interview ‘getting it on the record’ writing all information on his laptop. All interviews were semi-structured, ranging from 30 minutes to 45 minutes at time and place preferred by the participant. Bryman (2012) suggests that one hour of tape takes five to six hours to transcribe.

## **Transcribing the Interviews**

Although transcription is an immensely time consuming process, it also increases the researcher reflexivity and the trustworthiness of the transcript. Having the interviews transcribed by someone else is less time consuming and at the beginning the researcher contemplated using the services of a professional transcriber but felt that this would be unethical. The researcher soon found out that

the creation of a transcript is not as straightforward as it may seem but “theoretical in nature, with numerous decision points throughout that are closely tied to the purpose of the study” (Ochs, as cited in Olson, 2011, p. 68) and therefore transcription by the researcher was a better option.

Green, Franquiz, and Dixon (1997) (as cited in Davidson, 2009) is of the opinion that transcription is a representational process that encompasses:

What is represented in the transcript (e.g., talk, time, nonverbal actions, speaker/hearer relationships, physical orientation, multiple languages, translations); who is representing whom, in what ways, for what purpose, and with what outcome; and how analysts position themselves and their participants in their representations of form, content, and action (p. 173).

While transcribing the interviews, the researcher selects phenomena or features of talk and interaction making choices (Kvale, 1996, as cited in Anyan, 2013), representing some actions, in certain ways. Marton (1996) (as cited in Dortins, 2002) described the transcriptions and interviewing process as a productive interaction because, “the experiences and understandings, are jointly constituted by interviewer and interviewee...” (p. 209). My role as researcher was to assist the participants in exploring and to explain their ideas as they endeavoured to express them to me.

## **Pilot study**

In order to ensure clarity and relevance of interview questions, one of my colleagues volunteered to participate in a mock interview (a pilot study) to “check for any outstanding problems that might have been unforeseen in the development process” (Greeff, 2007, p. 296).

Polit, Beck and Hungler (2006) liken a pilot study to a “small scale version[s], or trial run[s], done in preparation for the major study” (p. 467). Van

Teijlingen and Hundley (2002) argue that one of the advantages of conducting a pilot study is “that it might give advance warning about where the main research project could fail, where research protocols may not be followed, or whether proposed methods or instruments are inappropriate or too complicated” (p. 289). In using this method, the researcher “learned from the pilot study” and made the necessary changes, without offering the reader details about what exactly was learnt (van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002, p. 290).

Minor changes to the interview guide were made prior to the implementation of the study based on feedback during the pilot study.

## **Data Collection**

Interviews are widely used as a data collection tool in qualitative research and it is the intention of the researcher to enter into the ‘inner world’ of the participants in order to gain an understanding of their perspectives (Johnson & Christensen, 2004).

van Manen (1990) argues that interviews serve one of two very specific purposes:

It may be used as a means for exploring and gathering experiential narrative material that may serve as a resource for developing a richer and deeper understanding of a human phenomenon,

It may be used as a vehicle to develop a conversational relation with a participant (interviewee) about the meaning of an experience (p. 66).

The time and date of the interviews was chosen according to the participant’s convenience and allowance was made for a quiet and undisturbed environment. The response time to participate in the study varied between one and two weeks with some participants showing an interest to participate but not having the time to sit for the interview.



It was made clear at the beginning that the transcription and written interpretations would be made available to the participants. The questions used for these interviews were sent to the participants prior to the interviews to help them develop their story. The researcher clarified questions and probed the participants for answers to the questions in order to provide the most comprehensive information for this study. Nonverbal cues, including facial expressions and tones of voice were observed and noted.

When the interview took place in the participants' classroom, cues from the surroundings were noted and entered in the field notes. Interviews were conducted during non-school hours at a location of the participant's choosing allowing another level of participant confidence to speak and privacy (Seidman, 2012).

The data gathering procedure took the form of a pilot study scrutinising the questions of the study, followed by face-to-face interviews conducted with selected participants in which they described experiences relevant to the research question (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). A protocol consisting of a written questionnaire and semi-structured questions was issued to participants. After further investigation and reading of the participants' responses, the researcher selected 5-8 participants to discuss and ask to explain their ideas in more detail or elaborate on what they had written down in the demographical information sheet – section 1 and 2 (see Appendix D). An initial non-directive style of interview using open-ended questions was used followed by a more directive style of questioning requiring more clarification of information from the participant.

## Data Storage Process

After the completion of the interviews and the transcription of it, the question emerged “what to do with the transcriptions”? It became necessary to determine how to manage this information most efficiently.

It was important to establish a format template so that each transcript had an identical structure and appearance. A computer-based system for tracking the status of transcripts and the storage of audiotape materials was useful. All the interviews were recorded on a Mini Cassette Recorder, played back and imported onto the computer using a digital audio recordings- computer generate software – Audacity v1.2. Free Audio and Recorder to save interviews on computer, transcribe and finally saved on a memory stick. This became an effective alternative storing and managing audio data programme while ensuring that the sound quality of the recorded interview was clear, audible, and did not deteriorate with repeated use (Maloney & Paolisso, 2001, as cited in McLellan, MacQueen & Neidig, 2003). Given the fact that qualitative data can be a messy process, LeCompte and Schensul (1999, as cited in McLellan et al., 2003) identified seven steps to manage or “tidy up” qualitative data, which was followed in this study. Whether data is analysed manually or electronically it involves:

- a) maintaining copies of all important materials;
- b) ordering field notes or researcher memos using a chronological, genre, cast-of-characters, event or activity, topical, or quantitative data file schema;
- c) designing and implementing a system for labelling and logging interviews;
- d) cataloguing or indexing all documents and artefacts;
- e) establishing the safe storage of all materials;

- f) checking for missing data; and
- g) developing a process for reading and reviewing text (p. 37-40).

## **Data Analysis**

In accordance with the established qualitative research approach, each interview was transcribed after the interview took place to allow the researcher enough time to “absorb” the information before a next interview was scheduled. The raw data transcriptions was completed by the researcher in order not to lose any of the nuances or connections from the tapes to the actual time spent with each teacher (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). These accounts were returned to the participants to negotiate for clarity.

In practice Lofland and Lofland (2006) suggested that researchers should start coding the data after the transcription with “as much regularity and frequency as possible without being concerned about the eventual viability of a code” (p.190). Some codes occurred with more frequency and regularity than others, enabling the researcher to focus on each interview according to the emerging codes and strengthening themes (inductive process) to identify patterns in the data by means of thematic coding (Creswell, 2007; Hatch, 2002). These evolved into clusters, and eventually into theme categories (Robson, 2002). Since qualitative research yields mainly unstructured text-based data, NVivo computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software was used to code the transcripts and analyse the data. Using NVivo allowed the researcher “to collect the richest possible data” because it is “very relevant, pertinent, and just what is needed for the problem being studied” (Lofland & Lofland, 2006, p. 11).

## **Framework Analysis**

In this study the researcher adopted the framework analysis developed by Ritchie and Spencer (2003) to describe the major phases of data analysis. Framework analysis relies heavily on the creativity and conceptual ability of the researcher to determine the meaning, salience and connections of the data (Ritchie & Spencer, 2003). Koch (1999) further emphasised the interpretation of the data is dependent on reading the transcribed texts of the interviews, observing and listening to the participants during the interviews and reflecting on their experiences. This approach is very flexible because it allowed the researcher to either collect all the data and then analyse it or do data analysis during the collection process. It involves a systematic process of sifting, charting and sorting data into key issues and themes and by following a well-defined procedure, it is also possible to reconsider ideas because the analytical process has been documented and is therefore accessible. The researcher opted to do the latter allowing data to be sifted, charted and sorted in accordance with key issues and themes. This involves a five step process:

- (i) Familiarisation;
- (ii) Identifying a thematic framework;
- (iii) Indexing;
- (iv) Charting
- (v) Mapping and interpretation (Ritchie & Spencer, 2003).

## **Research Realities**

### **Interviews**

During the first couple of interviews, the researcher learned to minimise the amount that he talked during interviews. In retrospect, the researcher realised that because of these interruptions, participants sometimes could not continue talking and seemed unable to elaborate their point of view. The researcher found it useful to have a long interview with some participants because the contents of life stories (narratives) sometimes drew upon valuable themes. As the interviewing progressed, the researcher realised that spending just over half an hour was long enough to cover all the target questions he had prepared, especially when teachers were also prepared for the interview.

The researcher found that not all teachers prepared for the interview; however, it was still important to listen to the teacher's narratives because they often included their personal experiences of the induction and mentoring process at their first school. Those narratives sometimes brought back new topics and highlighted the many challenges teachers new to special needs teaching in New Zealand faced. It also gave an opportunity for refreshing possible themes related to the research topic. This situation created the dilemma of whether to hurry or not to hurry in an interview. Therefore, cues were taken from the participant in each interview.

### **My Concerns**

During the initial planning stage of the study, the researcher's supervisor made him aware of the "gatekeeper syndrome" being the person or persons who can stop the study project. Gaining official access to the research sites and participants in this study was unique because at only two schools I was only invited to discuss the

project with either the principal or the induction coordinator. Realising this almost jeopardised his prospect of getting enough participants for the study, but he learned from the start that each social structure needed a different measure to successfully negotiate entry (Feldman, Bell & Berger, 2003). While attending the annual Special Education Conference held at Waipuna Lodge, Auckland, at the end of Term 3 of 2013, he started networking and approached teachers individually.

One of his main concerns was related to scheduling the time for conducting the interview because of the workload of teachers. He first needed to consider maximising the prospect for obtaining participants and minimising the risk of receiving a low turnout from interview participants. He therefore contacted those who had indicated a desire to participate in the interview once he received a positive response from them so as to arrange the interview date. He also needed to consider the time allowed between interviews to allow sufficient time for transcribing each interview together with journal writing and data analysis, followed by the preparation of each interview transcript. Having considered all these aspects and the amount of data of the research, he decided to divide the distribution of the questions into strips (glued on a piece of paper) based on the questions asked. This enabled him to identify the different themes, then upload them using NVivo into codes.

The other concern was how to recruit teachers for interviews even though he contacted the principals. At first this looked like a mammoth task but after discussion with colleagues they “identified other people they know who fit the selection criteria” also known as snowballing (Ritchie & Spencer, 2003, p. 129). All the teachers who were introduced through this approach were contacted by email and a study “pack” was sent to them. Most participants contacted through “word of mouth” using the snowball technique volunteered to participate in the study.

## **Handling Obstacles**

One of the major obstacles that the researcher encountered was related to scheduling the interview sessions. Some of his participants changed the interview date two or three times, for various reasons. In those cases, they usually contacted him to notify that they wanted to re-schedule. In the end, a few of the interview sessions had to be cancelled all together and new participants had to be recruited putting a lot of pressure on him. There was one teacher who informed him that she could not see her way clear to sit for the interview because of personal circumstances, and I thanked her for informing him.

Although 15 teachers offered to participate in the study, the researcher could not manage to meet all of them (cancellations by participants was one reason or not showing an interest). A few teachers asked to be interviewed over the telephone but since he preferred meeting face-to- face with his participants rather than interviewing by telephone, he reserved their offers and kept his options open. One interview opportunity arose when he contacted a teacher, and they had the opportunity to meet at the AUT South Campus meeting room after prior arrangement. This interview was attended by a third party because of the gender of the participant and timing of the interview.

## **Rewarding**

There was no reward or payment for participating in this study. However, as a gesture of respect each participant was given a box of chocolates handed at the conclusion of the interview. One participant was invited to drink coffee and eat a light snack at a local coffee shop after the interview. During this time, the researcher was given the opportunity to listen to her narrative such as her present teaching

context. I did not formally record this information because he saw it as very “unethical”.

### **After the interview – Follow up**

When the researcher was writing the journal notes or transcribing the interviews, he sometimes realised that he should have asked a particular question during the interview. Although he had prepared an interview guide, he still missed asking some questions, mainly because these questions were related to a particular issue brought up during the interview. Subsequently, he sent a reminder note to the teachers requesting to amend or add additional responses to the transcription in red. In some cases, he received replies, while in other cases he received no response.

### **Ethical measures employed in the study**

There is no guarantee that a research project will not encounter unexpected situations. Mouton (2005) reiterates that “the ethics of science concerns what is wrong and what is right in the conduct of research” and as such I search for truth and must conform to generally accepted norms and values (pp. 238-239). As this study was conducted to investigate the “unique past of the learner”, the researcher had to ensure that it was conducted in a morally acceptable way (Boud, Cohen & Walker, 1993, p. 10). It can be seen by the nature of this study that he would interact with people and the environment; therefore, he became aware of his obligations and responsibilities in conducting the research. A number of “core ethical principles” had an impact on this research and are discussed briefly below. Research studies involving human participants require ethical approval prior to the commencement of the proposed study (Appendix E) which was obtained.



The issue of confidentiality was also addressed as it is paramount in research (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007; Robinson & Lai, 2006). All participants were given pseudonyms so it would be unlikely that anyone would be able to identify the actual settings. No school was named in this study, to ensure that confidentiality was maintained. Participants signed a confidentiality agreement prior to the commencement of the interview (Turnbull, 2000).

### **Informed consent and assent**

It becomes very important in any research that participants know their rights, how the study was going to be carried out and are invited to provide written consent before commencing the interview. According to Shaw, Brady and Davey (2011) the onus is on the researcher to show that he or she has taken the necessary precautions to ensure that the person(s) whose consent is being sought has been given the requisite information and has been supported in developing an adequate understanding of the research. This was sought through participant invitation sheets and consent forms (Appendix A and B), which outlined the extent of participation, the purpose of the study and the procedure of the study. Participants were informed that participation was not compulsory, but voluntary and written consent was needed.

### **Confidentiality and Anonymity**

Confidentiality implies that research data that includes identifiable information of participants should not be disclosed to others without the explicit consent of the participants (Cohen et al., 2007). The data was collected with the written consent of the participant and the researcher explained who would have access to the data and why. The principle of anonymity is that individual participants would not be identifiable in research documentation, unless agreed to by the

participant to ensure confidentiality is maintained. Participants signed a consent form prior to commencing the interview (Appendix B).

Punch (2009), for example, explained that subjects currently are seen as “respondents, participants, and stakeholders in a constructivist paradigm that is based on avoidance of harm, fully informed consent, and the need for privacy and confidentiality” (p. 89). The researcher had to adhere to the ethical requirements set out by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee. It was crucial to explain to the participants that he would be the only person aware of the names of the participants with the interviews and the audio recordings would be deleted after the transcriptions so as to maintain anonymity.

Participants were informed that no identifying information about the participant(s) or institution, in this case school, would be revealed in writing or in conversations with others. Direct quotes from the participants’ interviews incorporated into this thesis contain no identifiable information

## **Validity and Reliability**

In order to ensure the effectiveness of the research project, it was important that the researcher consider quality before starting with the research project. Whether researchers use a qualitative or quantitative paradigm to find a result; the underpinning purpose is to find the truth. I used a qualitative study tool to understand and describe the world of human experience.

Therefore, the most important issues in the research were to ensure reliability and validity. According to Joppe (2000, as cited in Golafshani, 2003) reliability is:

“The extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability

and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable” (p. 36).

Silverman (2013) suggested, one way of achieving reliability in research is to design a highly structured interview, which has the same format and order of words and questions for each interview. Having said this, using semi-structured interviews made it difficult to ensure reliability as each interview had many unprepared prompts and it is unlikely this research could be replicated. This became evident while interviewing participants that the researcher did not own the “interview process” and it was important to have open-ended questions, because they offer participants an opportunity to indicate their perspective of viewing the world and their definition of the situation (Scheurich, 1995).

Silverman (2013) further suggested that suitable questions sequence for one participant may be less appropriate for another; hence open-ended questions can raise unanticipated issues. In undertaking this study with five special needs schools in South Auckland, the researcher acknowledges that the reliability of the research findings is questionable. If another researcher was to conduct this study at a different time in a different place in New Zealand, the findings may not be consistent with this research.

Even though each of the participants have his/her own perspective and social knowledge; they shared some sort of commonality and through the use of interviews I sought to understand the meaning of the induction and mentoring phenomena from the interviewee’s perspective. Research may be reliable but this does not imply that it is valid. According to Bush (2007) validity originally meant whether the tools employed “measure what they are supposed to measure” (p.102). Using semi-structured interviews with participants, the aim was to understand what and how the

interviewee experienced the world from the ways he/she conveys this to the interviewer. Once the interviews were transcribed, and before the analysis of the data took place, he emailed the research evidence (transcriptions) back to the participants to check the accuracy of the information gained through the semi-structured interviews to check the completeness of coverage of the subject under investigation - respondent validation (Ritchie, O'Connor, Morrell & Ormston, 2013). By returning the evidence back to the participants, he saw it as a meaningful way to help interpret findings or suggest further analytical paths.

I anticipated that participants might have some issues with open-ended questions. In addition, I brought my own experiences into the research process. I ensured that I was able to accommodate these conflicting issues.

## **SUMMARY**

This chapter has discussed and critiqued the justification of employing a qualitative approach in this study of induction and mentoring of overseas trained teachers in five special needs schools in South Auckland. Adoption of a qualitative stance provides the researcher with a rich and deep analysis of the phenomenon under study. The research methods used in this study were semi-structured (open ended questions) interviews to establish the research design and data analysis techniques.

This research investigates overseas trained teachers' perspectives about their induction and mentoring experiences in special needs education and what made it successful, unsuccessful, effective or ineffective using the research method of narrative inquiry. Finally, a full consideration of the ethics surrounding this research has been outlined and discussed.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### RESULTS / FINDINGS

“There is variety in techniques because there are different questions to be addressed and different versions of social reality that can be elaborated”

(Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p. 14, as cited in Punch, 2009).

#### OVERVIEW

Using interviews as a qualitative research method usually generates a large volume of data that is unstructured at a macro level, but at a micro level contains detailed accounts of the participants’ experiences. This approach not only describes phenomena but also evokes understandings that would otherwise lay dormant (van Manen 1990). Due to the large volume of data, the researcher has to provide some coherence and structure to the data set, while retaining a hold of the original accounts and narratives from which it is made (Ritchie & Spencer, 2003).

Data analysis is a very lengthy process and is shaped and reshaped as the study proceeds and as data is gradually transformed into findings. Accordingly “each qualitative study is unique, the analytical approach used will be unique” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 433). As ‘novice’ qualitative researchers, we all have our own preferences, strengths, and weaknesses, and must determine what works best for us. Patton (2002) notes that “direction can and will be offered, but the final destination remains unique for each inquirer, known only when – and if – arrived at” (p. 432). As the researcher reached the final stage of analysis, having all the narrative interviews, notes and data in front of him, he was at a complete loss. Rereading the literature was of some assistance, but somehow he was so focused on the need to do something with the data that he did not consider journaling as a means to think things through, on both a personal and a research level. As the study progressed, there was more material to cope with and journaling became of lesser importance. He attests to

the reality that it was extremely difficult to keep up with everything qualitative research requires, especially given his 'novice' status.

The researcher ended up rereading and rereading the transcripts over and over again in an effort to identify themes. Once this was complete, he then printed a hard copy with the idea of cutting and pasting quotations into categories. Although this process was very time consuming it paid off in the end by offering visual evidence of the dominant themes. As a 'novice' researcher, he was led to believe that themes simply "emerge from the data," but in retrospect he discovered that most of the categories had been identified before this time, and were extracted from the transcripts. The themes and subthemes came from closer inspection of what he thought might emerge prior to collecting data and from ideas presented in the literature on induction and mentoring, as well as from insights gained during the research process.

Analysing the data produced themes. Thematic analysis is an interpretive process, whereby data is systematically searched to identify patterns within the data in order to provide an illuminating description of the phenomenon under study. It further results in the development of meaningful themes without explicitly generating theory while, also providing rich and insightful understandings of complex phenomena (Braun & Clark, 2006).

### **Familiarisation**

At the first stage, the researcher was immersed in the data, gaining an overview of the substantive content and identifying topics and familiarising himself with the transcripts of the data collected (i.e. interview transcripts of overseas trained teachers, observation or field notes) while gaining an overview of the collected data (Ritchie & Spencer, 2003). This involved listening to the audiotapes, reading and re-

reading the transcribed texts, studying field notes and becoming immersed in the data, enabling him to gain an overview of the diversity and richness of the data. Throughout this process he became aware of key ideas and recurrent themes and made a note of them.

### **Identifying a Thematic Framework**

To identify a theoretical framework, I reviewed all the transcripts of the interviews and wrote down a list of recurring themes and issues that appeared to be important to overseas trained teachers' transition from mainstream teaching into special education. Some of the themes were informed from the research questions and introduced during the interview schedule. The key issues, concepts and themes that have been expressed by the participants now formed the basis of a thematic framework that could be used to filter and classify the data (Ritchie & Spencer, 2003).

Ritchie and Spencer (2003) argue that the thematic framework is only temporary and there are further chances of refining it at subsequent stages of analysis which involves both logical and intuitive thinking. The list of key themes and subthemes identified at the outset is indicated below:

- Mentoring
- Challenges of OTTs
  - Advice to OTTs
- Induction
- Professional support and guidance
  - Observation
  - Feedback
  - Team teaching
- Collegial support

- Lifelong learners
- Re-training
- Cultural responsive practice
- Behavioural management

## **Indexing**

The third stage, **indexing and sorting**, involves applying labels to chunks or ‘nodes’ of data that correspond to a particular theme. This process simply shows which theme or subtheme has been mentioned or referred to within the particular textual data that has been gathered (i.e. transcripts of interviews). During this study, the researcher used NVivo to electronically index data, “reading each phrase, sentence and paragraph in fine detail” to decide ‘what this is about’ (Ritchie et al., 2013, p. 300). Using NVivo was extremely quick and straightforward, but he opted to also use the traditional approach, cutting and pasting in Word, placing the relevant data extracts in a new ‘thematic’ document (Ritchie et al., 2013). Framework analysis allowed for this flexibility and also for different themes to emerge. In this way, he was able to retain an overview of all the themes as they were written down clearly and labelled. It was also clear to see at a glance how many participants had a particular experience.

## **Charting**

The charting process involves building specific pieces of data that were indexed in the previous stage. It involved ‘lifting’ them from their original texts, remembering that although the pieces of data are lifted from their context; the data is still clearly identified as to what case it came from (Ritchie & Spencer, 2003). An essential aspect of charting was to keep all the participants’ responses in the same order for each theme and sub-theme so that the comparisons could be made more easily.



## **Mapping and Interpretation**

After having sifted and charted all the data according to the core themes and sub themes, the researcher began to pull together the key characteristics of the data and to interpret the data as a whole (Ritchie & Spencer, 2003). The interpretation of the data involved reading and reflecting on the transcripts of the interviews, reviewing all the charts and research notes. It concerned comparing and contrasting the overseas trained teachers' experiences, searching for patterns and connections within the structure as a whole. He then spent time away from the computer thinking about what the experience of induction and mentoring for overseas trained teachers new to special education really meant and how this could be expressed in a meaningful way to the readers of the study to describe the phenomenon. This illustrates the reflexive nature of the data analysis as a "personal tale of what went on in the backstage of doing research" (Ellis & Bochner, 2000, p. 741), he was an active participant in knowledge (re)production rather than as a neutral bystander (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007).

## **Application of the framework approach**

The researcher chose the framework approach to underpin data analysis for a range of reasons. Firstly, the framework approach is particularly suited to the analysis of cross-sectional descriptive data enabling different aspects of the phenomena under investigation to be captured (Ritchie et al., 2013). Secondly, one of the advantages of the framework approach is that researchers' interpretations of participants' experiences are transparent (Ritchie et al., 2013). Thirdly, for novice researchers, moving from data management to developing the analysis sufficiently to answer the research questions posed can be a daunting and bewildering task. The interconnected stages within the framework approach explicitly describe the

processes that guide the systematic analysis of data from the development of descriptive to explanatory accounts.

### **Making sense of data in qualitative research**

The first stage of qualitative analysis in research is basically to stock the data, to categorise the data, to make sense of the categories and, to communicate the findings to readers. Analysis is a continuous and iterative process requiring the managing of data and making sense of the evidence through descriptive or explanatory accounts (Ritchie et al., 2013). Much of the data, at the management stage, can be carried out with the aid of computer –assisted analysis software (Nvivo) or, indeed, using pen and paper. However, the researcher opted to use a combination of both. He decided to note some of the preparatory thinking using Word files away from the computer before entering a more refined version into the Nvivo programme (Lewins & Silver, 2007).

### **Data Management**

As a ‘novice’ qualitative researcher, he was soon “overwhelmed with the sheer volume” (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992, p. 13, as cited in Watt, 2007) of data that accumulated. He soon discovered the truth in this statement, noting in his journal that “papers [were] piling up . . . even after just one interview” (Journal entry, November 12, 2013). Forewarned, he made a special effort to manage the data. The journal was housed in a large binder, and he was able to add, discard, or rearrange documents if necessary. He realised that in “the act of updating the binder weekly, I could control the material accumulating during the week” (Journal entry, November 22, 2013). Having a central location to keep field notes and reflective memos did not completely eliminate the sense of being overwhelmed, but it did help to keep it in check.

Data management refers to the process of making qualitative data “manageable”; sorting the data according to a set of themes or concepts in order for more interpretive analysis (Ritchie et al., 2013). At the beginning of the qualitative analysis, the prospect of analysing several pages of transcriptions seemed daunting and it was for this reason that the researcher had to organise steps to “manage” the data in order to make this volume of material easier to access and interpret (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Although he felt tempted to move directly from the raw data to more abstract or analytic accounts, it became clear that a more systematic path had to be followed to build a structure of evidence. Thus, at the beginning of the formal analysis stage, themes were firmly grounded in the data and as he developed an understanding of the transcriptions: concepts, categories, patterns and linkage within the data emerged.

## **SUMMARY**

This chapter explored the benefits of framework analysis, then examined in turn the key stages of familiarisation, identifying a thematic framework, indexing, charting and mapping. The following chapter presents a detailed discussion of the findings of the study gained from implementing this design.

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **DISCUSSION**

“Many a researcher would like to tell the whole story but of course cannot, the whole story exceeds anyone’s knowing and anyone’s telling” (Stake, 2005, p.240).

### **OVERVIEW**

This chapter presents and discusses the results of the data into understandable concepts and helps the reader to make sense of the information found during the individual interviews. One of the main aims of the study was to capture the experiences of overseas trained teachers on induction and mentoring as they transitioned into special needs teaching between the period 2000 and 2010 in five South Auckland special needs schools. The researcher intended to bring the information to the reader as it was found in the field. Although these findings are based on research in South Auckland special needs schools, they have implications for other special needs schools in New Zealand as well. The information rich semi-structured interviews provided raw data on induction and mentoring of overseas trained teachers in special needs schools. The findings are presented and analysed statistically as well as in the narrative form.

This study would have been impossible if it was not for the willingness of the eight overseas trained teachers, willingly giving their time, telling their story and in the process letting others into their “world” but in the same time giving them “voice” to share their lived experiences. Even though this is just a glimpse of what overseas trained teachers new to special education encounter no one would be able to grasp the enormity of what they experienced unless it is out there in the “open”.

Everybody has a story to tell... This is their STORY.

## **DESCRIPTION OF PARTICIPANTS**

Before conducting one-to-one face-to-face, interviews, participants completed a questionnaire (Appendix D, section 2) to find out information on the experiences, views and issues induction and mentoring have on overseas trained teachers in South Auckland special needs schools. The purpose of the induction questionnaire was to assist the reader and the researcher with valuable information about the context and the background of the overseas trained teachers under study. The data that emerged from the questionnaire showed a discrepancy amongst the participants, ranging from limited educative support to no support at all, an absence of constructive feedback and a lack of professional development related to special needs teaching.

The study does not aim to focus much on the findings of the biographical information except where their relevance gives meaning to the main findings. The researcher purposefully selected the participants and schools with similar characteristics in order to limit the disparities caused by the variables in the findings of the study. After collecting all the information during the field work, the researcher collated the data from the questionnaires as illustrated in Table A.

The aggregated profiles of OTTs new to Special Needs Teaching									
OTTs new to Special needs Teaching	Gender	Age	Highest professional qualification	Country qualification gained	Year immigrate to New Zealand	Years of experience in Special needs	Position at school	Aquiring information of NZ Teaching curriculum	Name of school
Mandiso	F	30 - 35 years	Post Graduate Diploma	USA	2007	5 years	Class teacher	Visit the Ministry of Education website	Scribe
Nandi	F	40 years and older	Bachelor Degree	Zimbabwe	2002	10 years	Class teacher	Visit the Ministry of Education website	Usher
Naledi	F	30 - 35 years	Post Graduate Diploma	UK	2008	6 years	Special Education Itinerant teacher	Visit the Ministry of Education website	Chorus
Kagiso	M	40 years and older	Post Graduate Diploma	South Africa	1999	10 years	Teacher of the Deaf	Recruitment Agency	Achilles
Themba	F	40 years and older	Bachelor Degree	South Africa	2001	10 years	Class teacher	Visit the Ministry of Education website	Chorus
Thabo	F	40 years and older	Bachelor Degree	South Africa	1999	10 years	Class teacher	Recruitment Agency	Lafeu
Chippa	F	40 years and older	Bachelor Degree	Zimbabwe	2002	7 years	Class teacher	Other means (e.g. Friends)	Solanio
Dingaana	M	40 years and older	Post Graduate Diploma	South Africa	1999	10 years	Class teacher	Other means (e.g. Business)	Falstaff

*Table A: Participants demographic information*

Gender was not a prerequisite for taking part in the study; however, it is very noticeable that only two males volunteered to take part in the study compared to six female. The information as illustrated in Table A serves as a reference only to the reader with information on the participants as referred to throughout the chapter. Participants were given pseudonyms to meet the need for confidentiality and to provide privacy; these pseudonyms were recorded on the narratives and biographical information questionnaires. The information collected was adequate data for the qualitative research. The eight overseas trained teachers were purposefully selected

to participate in this study. Their teaching experience in special needs ranged from one to 10 years at the time of the research study. Their ages ranged between 30 and 40 years and over. The findings revealed that the participants have different educational backgrounds and it was clear that some also had undertaken postgraduate studies in New Zealand to familiarise themselves with special needs education pedagogy. The findings further revealed that six teachers came from Africa compared to only one from the United States of America and one from the United Kingdom. There are two explanations for this exodus of teachers from Africa between 2000 and 2008.

Four overseas trained teachers came from South Africa, directly related to the political uncertainty after the release of Nelson Mandela in 1994. South Africa went through a political transition phase and during this time huge changes took place in all spheres of the government. As huge re-structuring took place in the educational system with bigger classes and many long serving principals taking the redundancy package leaving this left the educational profession in limbo. During the same time Zimbabwe experienced both political and economic instability with living costs rising sporadically. Other reasons given by overseas trained teachers immigrating to New Zealand were the improvement of their living standards and better education prospects for their children.

I observed that there was an insignificant difference between teachers with a postgraduate diploma in special education and those with only a Bachelor's degree (as illustrated in Table B). Even though the postgraduate qualification may not be in special needs education, these teachers were promoted into a more senior position with more responsibility. However, this does not imply that teachers without postgraduate qualifications were not promoted to senior positions or given more responsibilities. This information was a necessary variable in this study because the

educational qualifications might also determine how the participants view certain aspects such as re-training, induction and other forms of support.

OTTs that re-trained			
Gender	Male	Female	Total
	2	6	8
Qualification			
Post Graduate Diploma	2	2	4
Bachelor Degree	0	4	4
Total	2	6	8

*Table B: Overseas trained Teacher re-trained*

Although some of the information required in the interview and biographical data questionnaire may not necessarily be vital to the aims of the research, all are concerned with the transitioning of overseas trained teachers into special needs teaching and may have a positive impact on the teacher's experiences. Because of overlap, data was examined separately and simultaneously as part of the analysis.

## **FINDINGS**

For the purpose of this study, data from the face-to-face semi-structured interviews was analysed and the findings presented and analysed in narrative form to give "voice" to the eight participants' lived experiences. What follows is the narrative account of each participant, focusing on characters that have problems, adventures or experiences and is written for the purpose of being an audience to others. Clarity and understanding of the phenomenon of induction and mentoring of overseas trained teachers in South Auckland special need schools was gained through a lens that "aims to focus on people's perceptions of the world in which they live in and what it means to them; a focus on people's lived experience" (Langdridge, 2007, p.4).



## **Outline of the Raw Data**

The analysis of raw data into specific themes started during the first phase of the interviews. Journal notes also assisted in the analysis process. Evidence of the experiences of the participants was gathered during the initial interview stage providing thorough evidence and informed knowledge which highlighted the complexity of induction and mentoring in special need schools. Perceptions, as narrated by the 8 participants, explained more about the overseas trained teachers' perceptions on the induction and mentoring in South Auckland special needs schools. The researcher compiled the narrated raw data into specific narratives which will hopefully assist the reader to understand that general perceptions and remarks by the participants are based on deeper rooted issues.

For the purpose of the study, the findings of the interviews were presented as told by the participants. At this stage, the researcher felt it would be of greater benefit to describe the participants individually – their stories, their experiences, and then, analyse the data for theoretical connections.

## **Transcriptions of OTTs Narratives**

This part of the study will look at the narrative account of each participant and how they transitioned from mainstream teaching into Special needs teaching. All participants started their journey into teaching via mainstream teaching collectively having more than 80 years teaching experience in their respective countries. However, all of them had one common denominator. They had “limited” knowledge of the uniqueness that comes with teaching students who are culturally so different from the students that they used to teach. They also had to become acquainted and familiar with the challenging behaviour of the students. Most of them had not experienced working with students with behavioural challenges, as well as being

unfamiliar with students who have an intellectual disability. This phenomenon also took place in mainstream teaching because during the period 1990 and 2000 there was an influx of overseas trained teachers into New Zealand schools. What follows is a summary by each participant (pseudonyms were given to protect the identity of each participant) who invited me, as an, “outsider” into their “world”.

### ***Special education not a walk in the park!***

#### **It was my personal choice**

Kagiso, a male teacher over 40 years old, came to New Zealand in late 1999 acquiring information about teaching opportunities through a recruitment agency. He mentioned that;

“Some overseas teachers struggle to get to terms with the country - most of the teachers who come from overseas don’t come as special needs teachers, they come here as mainstream teachers – for a lot of them special needs are their first experience -working with special needs students”.

According to Kagiso;

“Teachers are more tolerant in New Zealand, and I think the whole management approach or strategy dealing with students with behaviour management or intellectual disabilities are much more tolerant here than in for example where I come from”.

His journey into teaching travelled through a system where teachers were “much more rigid and conservative”.

Although teaching overseas was characterised by a system of inequality he mentioned that;

“You had to look at your own history - it was just one way that we possibly dealt with, it was a quite strict disciplined way and you had to be more open and adjust your whole management and strategy - it was a whole learning experience, some of us learn easier and those who was more rigid it was harder to adapt. I think it ...uhm..It was a big plus also because we had to look at our own ways and how we dealt with it”.

According to Kagiso;

“The New Zealand authorities use South Africa teachers quite a lot because South African teachers adapt more easily to New Zealand conditions or the curriculum and I can go along with that - but with special needs - it is slightly different. With special needs we are not exposed to the level of mainstreaming or inclusion of special needs students to the extent that NZ does”.

Kagiso is of the opinion that not all OTTs have the same experience transitioning to special education and shared how schools can ensure that for;

“... younger teachers you have to take into account very much what sort of class you are going to expose the teacher to – you get various degrees of special needs – you get special needs where it could be relatively easy for a new teacher to come in and you get a special needs class that would actually be “suicide” to put a new teacher in that class without the training and support”.

Kagiso reiterated that it was a common practice in special needs education to put an OTT;

“... in classes where they just couldn’t cope – they had professional qualifications – highly regarded professional qualifications but the situation was way over the top for them. There are just one or two people who came to mind – who were thrown in the deep end - who could really not cope with the situation - especially with older students [special needs students] whose behaviour was bad”.

Kagiso indicated that;

“... those in charge of the induction and mentoring programme have to look at the teachers’ personality and match them with the class and right mentor. You’ve got to be aware that a male teacher will have more respect in certain areas in New Zealand, especially in classes with a bigger proportion of Polynesian students, whereas a young, pretty female teacher will find it very much more challenging dealing with a group of senior boys where behaviour is an issue”.

He summed up his experience with special needs teaching as;

“I think I was very much impressed with the level of support given to students with special needs, [New Zealand] especially coming from a country South Africa where having taught or worked within a department that was racially divided and funded. There was much more funding and much more time and resources were spent on students with special needs in New Zealand. That also made one more aware of special needs and how it is accommodated in society, and was not hidden away, and that was brought to the front and treated as equal people, and not as something that needed to be hidden away in an

institution. The mainstream and the openness was such a nice thing to see. It was my decision to get more involved in special education”.

Kagiso’s involvement in the field of special needs was driven by two main factors. The opportunities given by the deputy principal who came to him asking;

“Are you interested in doing ...In going to do this course” so “I did a special needs course at The Auckland University and that was an ongoing thing because it was a whole new area that I was working in - special needs. ..uhm... I did..it”.

Kagiso also became aware of the benefit of extra “training in this aspect” to work with intellectually disabled students with challenging behaviour. According to Kagiso the deputy principal at his first school “his whole attitude was..uhm.. That we should support the people with special needs more and there was a shortage of men in that area”. The school’s philosophy was built on “ constant PDs working with people in that field and I think it was training and liaising with other professionals and people in that field from different schools especially when they had training” supplemented with PD’s from the Ministry of Education.

Kagiso expressed his appreciation towards colleagues introducing him to special needs pedagogy. He described this experience as “very supportive” and “She allowed me to teach and be myself – she tried to make the transition much easier and utilised my strengths which I appreciated”. Kagiso talked highly about his mentor;

“...she would find out how things are going - how you are doing – and actually giving me a lot of information – why they are doing something- we actually did this on – if I must talk about regularity – at least on a weekly basis or sometimes more than once”.

As a result his introduction in special education was very “smooth” because;

“... we used to have team sessions where there would be more than one teacher with a group of students and we could actually see her at some stage and observe her giving the lesson”.

According to Kagiso, he was quite aware of the cultural diversity of the New Zealand society because;

“...coming from a country like South Africa we had our own – there was cultural difference very much similar based on society and colour - there were elements of that in New Zealand as well”.

However, he took note of this diversity simply because “in a multi-cultural classroom you have to be aware of it” and as a new teacher being assimilated into the New Zealand society or culture, while also unfamiliar with the special education pedagogy, this is a “double problem for these students; besides being disabled and having special needs they also have a language need that they have to get over with along with the cultural problems”.

Kagiso’s experience did not come without any challenges;

“... the special needs teaching I quite welcomed – working with students that needed extra support but the hard part was actually working with students that needed the support and had behavioural issues – which I found particularly challenging”.

Kagiso also faced challenges “the violence, the defiance, and the destructive attitude –really it was hard but it has become much easier now that you are more comfortable with students”. He also expressed that teaching in special needs also has its “downside”, challenging a teacher to move out of their comfort zone “when you have

to toilet an adult student that soiled himself and you've never done it before, it might not be your cup of tea really". When asked what advice he would give to other overseas trained teachers wanting to teach special needs in New Zealand, Kagiso stated;

“... these teachers should actually be rostered to spend a day at a school really and – not necessary a decile 1 school – spend a day or some time across a range of schools to really see what happens in the school”.

### **A totally different ball game...**

Thabo a female teacher immigrated to New Zealand in the year 2000 after acquiring information about teaching opportunities using a recruitment agency. Even though she had prior teaching experience, she;

“... worked as a Teacher Assistant (TA) to gain experience and work in a class and from there on they assessed me and decided if I will be able to get the position”.

To assist her getting acquainted with teaching in New Zealand, Thabo “re-trained in the New Zealand education .... So I become familiar with the NZ curriculum”. Many OTTs find their first teaching job in areas outside teaching, and Thabo felt that even though she had the experience “They don't recognise your qualification and experience” you have “to prove yourself”.

She spoke highly of the impact colleagues had assisting her getting familiar with teaching students with special needs “you talk to staff asking them questions about things that you have observed in the classroom”.

Thabo also had some advice for OTTs wanting to make special needs their passion;

“... the best will be first to go and volunteer to work in a special needs school in different classes to gain as much experience as possible and working with a mentor all the time”.

The lack of insufficient experience dealing with students with behaviour issues was seen as challenging because Thabo felt;

“... the first time ever in my life that I see so many different behaviours in one classroom and if you do not have the experience it is very difficult to deal with the behaviours in your own time”.

Thabo reiterates how important induction is for OTTs even though they have taught previously in their respected countries. She states that it is “very, very important because each school got different inductions”. She emphasised that “having a proper induction to know exactly where you stand, what they are expecting from you and where to go next” because each school has a different way. She also emphasised that “IEPs (Individual Educational Plans) is very important ...that is mainly the number one part of the induction process....how it is conducted”.

Even though she did not have a mentor she felt that a person with a mentor “can go back and after the meeting ... new teachers can discuss what they have experienced and what they think the solution is”. Thabo’s greatest challenge was “working with a class with the lowest level...of multi students (referring to the level of students ability)...so many things that you need to know...feeding, programmes, therapist ...and the main person that supports you is therapists”. In her teaching in New Zealand she became aware of cultural diversities unknown: “the emphasis is on



Māori” to her. In her opinion special needs teaching is “a very rewarding place to be but you have to put extra hours in if you want to succeed”.

***It was a big learning curve...***

After training, Naledi a 35 year old female teacher worked in mainstream teaching, travelled extensively and worked in a state care home working with students with serious behavioural problems and other issues that required a lot of support. Moving to New Zealand was “a very positive experience” and a “big learning curve”. Naledi, recalled the first day at her school “I was given a name of a teacher, who was my mentor but nothing really happened”. Naledi states that the mentoring process did not really get off the ground “we were supposed to meet to talk about various things but it just turns up that we never actually met, really”.

She recalled that “I don’t think that I ever really met with my mentor apart from being told, “This is your mentor” in a staff meeting or something. You have to get in touch with him when you need him”. In retrospect she recalled that “we had a few meetings where we went through this “big” booklet about the process”. At this point Naledi states “It was more like ticking the boxes for getting registered” and the process “where I have to write a reflection journal every week. It was such a pain”.

At this stage Naledi expresses her concerns being “a new teacher in New Zealand”. Even though it was a very positive experience. “Coming here was quite new to me working in a special school” and that “you have to learn about the new things”. She reiterated that;

“I guess, the Māori aspect was quite a challenge, I suppose, and learning a new curriculum and how to simplify it and learning how to work in a special needs setting. Things like visuals as a slightly different way of working”.

According to Naledi, her first school was “very aware because they have an all international staff” providing them with experiences dealing with a culturally diverse student population.

Moving to NZ Naledi “was quite shocked going into classes seeing teachers in jeans” and “seeing children running around with no shoes and kids allowed to climb trees” which was in contrast with what she was used to. Even though the “formal induction didn’t really happen to completion, colleagues were usually the first persons that I went to when I had a problem”. When she talked about her induction Naledi felt, as a beginning teacher new to special needs, she did not have “the opportunity to see what happens in a special education class” which would be “really very valuable” at that stage.

At the same time she gave an account of her first day “I went straight into my own class room and there wasn’t the opportunity to spend in other classrooms to observe”. In retrospect she felt that “having the opportunity seeing the processes being modelled, work with some of the students without having the pressure that I’m in charge of my classroom and get comfortable” would “be quite important” for teachers new to special needs teaching. Since;

“... everyone does it slightly differently because you will get some ideas from each class and teaching can be quite an isolating occupation, you there in your island and that would be an opportunity to go to other classes go and see how someone else is doing it, talk about... things through with them and get another interpretation”.

In terms of teaching in New Zealand and teaching overseas Naledi felt that professional development was;

“... mostly going through the paper work side of induction. Like this is how we write a report, this is what you do when you going on a trip, the RAMS this is the planning we expect” and the “feedback was not up to standards”.

When asked about the type of advice she would give OTTs wanting to teach in special education, Naledi states;

“It is very different to mainstream. So when I arrived it was hard to kind of imagine how teaching would look like in this context. Knowing that mainstream students can do so much more and that is more hands-off and curriculum based and very academic to special education. A lot of times you have to work with students 1:1 more hands on and find ways making sure that everyone is engaged even though you cannot be with everyone all the time but I got a lot of support from my TAs”.

According to Naledi it is important to have “a team relationship” and to “network with colleagues, try finding out what they do, telling them what you do” that can create the opportunity where you can learn “from other teachers and therapists and the Educational Psychologist at the school”.

In conclusion she states that;

“... you will never be prepared for everything but it just kind of trying not to be scared. Get to know your students as much as possible and just focus on one challenge at a time. Don't overwhelm yourself; you don't have to know it all; try building those links with colleagues; working on those relationships; it was probably the most important things that I did”.

## **I was left to my own devices like “sink or swim”**

Themba’s journey into special needs started when she moved to New Zealand in 2001. When she started at her first school she “did not have a mentor but that was OK for me because I prefer it that way”. Not having a mentor to Themba was a personal choice;

“... because having a person in my classroom would have been too overwhelming it would freak me out. It’s like having a person looking over your shoulders or looking down on you all the time”.

She reiterated how important it is to give a new teacher “a choice of possibilities to choose his/her own mentor” someone that “you can relate to”.

According to Themba, induction for new OTTs in special education forms “a vital part of teacher (OTTs’) induction into special education because there are so many things new to learn”. She is of the opinion that newly appointed OTTs expect a mentor to “play a very active role in my induction” and without their support “it would have been very hard to survive”.

Even though she taught in South Africa where there were students of different cultures at school she was;

“... confronted with a culture e.g. Māori cultural group that was new”. She felt that having a “mentor could have been helpful in this regard just to guide me in this aspect of the pronunciation of the words, protocol and also other aspects of the culture”.

She raised concerns that the mentor “wasn’t of any help at that stage” and she “was left to my own devices like “sink or swim”. She is convinced having a mentor

would have made “a huge difference to newly special needs teacher especially those without experience in that area”.

Themba described some of her biggest challenges as she transitioned into teaching special needs in New Zealand as “.... wanted to know more about the IEP process how to write it, what to look for” along with “having to figure out for myself what I have to write in it”. She explained “In the beginning it was just too much.... it was more frustrating because you did not know what to do or to expect”.

Themba’s past teaching provided her with experiences to “draw from and made some adjustments”. This in itself allowed her to give advice to others wanting to pursue a career in special needs education. In conclusion she states “Don’t come into the classroom with an “I know everything mentality”. Her advice to others is to “volunteer as a teacher or teacher aide at a school for a week or so, just to get the experience and a feel for the job”. However she is cautious saying “some finds it too hard and prefer to remain in mainstream teaching”. Her final remarks advising other OTTs - “Special Education can be very challenging yet so rewarding”.

### **Teaching from a blank canvas**

Although Nandi taught in a country with an education system similar to that of New Zealand, she found teaching in New Zealand “quite different-very challenging and a totally different method of teaching”. The first thing that set her up for failure was not having “exercise books to help”. She goes on describing her experience “I found that a lot of time we were plunged into the classroom without really having prior knowledge of what is expected of us in that system”.

Many OTTs overcome huge problems transitioning from one country into a new educational system without really grasping the magnitude of such decisions. This was such a moment for Nandi using different sources to obtain information to

do her job effectively “I speak a lot to the therapist team; to other teachers. I went online and read through the TKI website” a clear indication that as human beings we are lifelong learners.

Nandi speaks highly of her mentor “I spend a day in her classroom observing her” where “she guided me and tried to help me as much as she could”. Nandi learned a lot through team teaching where she can “observe and pick up a few pointers” from her mentor and others. Nandi expressed her gratitude towards her mentor with the words;

“I felt very comfortable, I wasn’t threatened and I just felt that she was very helpful in how she conducted herself” and “she would come into the classroom and observe a lesson - I think about twice a term and after school we would get together and discuss what she wrote down and she would ask me for feedback. We would discuss all the areas - she was very thorough not missing any aspect. I think she was really good in her mentoring style”

She also experienced that people were “a lot different from home where everybody was very supportive” but her luck soon changed when she met a “support worker that had been in the classroom for almost 20 years so she was my greatest support”. She felt that other teachers “hold a lot of information from you for whatever reason and I just wish that I could have had more help”. She further points out that teaching “in a satellite class” isolates you because “it’s easier when you are at the base school where you can ask questions and have the support of other people”.

She expresses gratitude towards “one very, very lovely lady” who has been the “main help to all overseas trained teachers because she was very knowledgeable about the curriculum”. As an OTT new to special needs Nandi explained what she

expected of her colleagues: “be willing to share information, to guide you, to mentor you and just to show you the ropes and explain the curriculum a lot clearer”.

According to Nandi certain aspects of teaching have to form part of the induction process for OTT new to special needs teaching. She highlighted the importance of knowing “... the curriculum because that was the challenge” and as new OTT “you were just given the New Zealand curriculum and expected to come up with your own ideas”.

Nandi felt that;

“team teaching working alongside somebody else who knows what they are doing; maybe also watching videos showing teaching in a classroom; showing different aspects of teaching rather than just being thrown into the classroom” should also be part of the induction process.

She found difficulty adapting her content knowledge to the New Zealand curriculum and “it took me over a year before I was really confident in what I was doing” clearly indicating the need and the importance of a proper induction and mentoring programme. Nandi felt further deprived because as an OTT she “don’t know the New Zealand history and the Māori protocols and culture and ethics it can be really hard”. She believed that “the mentor should be very knowledgeable and interested because a lot of mentors that you find are either not really interested in Māori culture or don’t really know it well”. Nandi’s teaching career into special needs started in “South Auckland where I not only have to learn the Māori culture but also many other Pacific cultures; a bit of Chinese culture”. As a result of this, Nandi “went to MIT (Manukau Institute of Technology) and enrolled in a three day course to familiarise myself with the Māori customs and protocols”. Attending a course at MIT helped her so she “had a better understanding of the Māori culture and it was also where I really

appreciate the culture” but not “only Māori culture but also Samoan, Tongan and all other Pacific culture”.

Her behaviour management style was also challenged because “We were very strict and much disciplined and understood how far we can go. I learned to be less strict but firm”. She admitted that “Even when I was not teaching in special education as I was going around the schools as a relief teacher discipline was a major problem”. According to Nandi she “was just given a New Zealand curriculum document” and you were expected to “teach from it without having professional development (PD) on it” a further indication of a lack of proper induction.

She was also challenged knowing that “some students who cannot really speak English or whose second language is English” and to “teach different levels of students in the same classroom” was new to her. She felt that a further challenge she encountered was;

“... being in charge of a group of support workers - that don't respect you because you are coming from a different culture especially when you come from Africa they think you are not “good” so that is a challenge - so you have to “prove” yourself over and over again”.

On top of this you will have students with;

“... autism, students with Down syndrome; students with scoliosis; people with other learning disabilities all in the same class so that is challenging in its self to cater for everybody's needs” and she had no PD to prepare her for these challenges.

Based on her experience of New Zealand special needs teaching, Nandi was in a position to give advice to other OTTs. She stated “go to University again and



just try to re-train” while you “attach yourself to a school but stay with a mentor and don’t have a class” and “to observe for at least a term and get to know the curriculum really, really well”.

In her closing remarks, Nandi states “Teaching is seen from only one perspective the ‘mainstream’ way” and that “university should actually have a course that is compulsory for student teachers around special education [needs and disabilities]”. According to Nandi “teachers in mainstream have release time to meet with the mentor” as set out in the New Zealand Teachers Council guidelines. She indicated that this should also “include overseas teachers who are new to the New Zealand context”.

### **Induction is like a road map**

According to Dingaan his journey into special needs “was quite interesting because I first worked in residential care for a year and a half”. He explained that the move to New Zealand started out as a business venture after “ten years of mainstream teaching at a Primary school” back in his home country. He developed an awareness that if you are living in South Africa “you don’t want to get out – you’re getting comfortable”. He explained that he was “a principal worker” for one of the students because “the school staff had trouble managing him”. He was invited to his “IEP planning and I was asked to help and manage him and that is how I got a job at this school”.

While working in residential care Dingaan developed “a good idea about special education” and “worked as a teacher aide [TA] for I think another year”. He explained that without the experience he gained while working in residential care and working as a support worker “it might be really tricky and I think that helped me heaps”. Because of his outgoing personality Dingaan mentioned that “I’m not scared

to talk to people and I believe that I am very thoughtful”. Obtaining information to do his job effectively he used various sources;

“I speak to my colleagues, I speak to my syndicate leader, and I speak to the principal” and “also log on the internet and look for information”.

He spoke highly about the support he received at his school “we had professional development [PDs] every Thursday” and that has “always been good and supportive for me”. He described the collegial support as;

“... sometimes when the classes are unsettled and we are waiting or when we are down on staff I can just call in one of my colleagues, one of the staff to come in and s/he will just take one or two of my students and I think that is a huge, huge help and support”.

Dingaan saw himself as a “more hands on person as opposed to a paper person” and would “have liked more help with IEP writing” as part of his induction process at his school. He is very philosophical about the induction of newly appointed OTTs in special education as he states “induction is like a road map” because “if you are put into a class and you don’t know what to do you fall over your feet and you will learn it day by day”. He further emphasised that “induction is very vital” and that “you will know that this is the type of student you will get and these are the challenges”. He states that induction is “almost like apprenticeship” and as OTTs “you need experience before you take over it is absolutely important before you take over. ... so you need that induction, you need that apprenticeship”.

He also expressed concerns because “there are so many behavioural problems with students and I think you need to have exposure to a student profile” and read about the “behavioural management strategies” you have to implement with individual students because one size does not fit all. He admitted that “classroom

management is something that you automatically take with you” but is also open-minded that “you need more skills because you have to up skill so that you can deal with the different behaviours”.

Dingaan states “Oooh I did not have a mentor as such” although he had access to a “senior staff member” but admits he did not have “somebody that gave me advice and they would share their experience with me”. He spoke at great length about the advantage that having a mentor would be to an OTT.

“The guy that has a mentor is miles ahead than a guy that don’t have a mentor because a mentors being there, you going where he has been, he made those mistakes, you can learn from his mistakes and you can have a short cut. So a mentor I think is most, most, most vital it makes things easier, it makes you more effective, it makes you more productive and you don’t get to repeat those mistakes”.

He expressed that by being mentored;

“I could see what s/he is doing and I saw what work and what didn’t and I can build on and bring my own flavour into it, yeah and that was helpful and I was hands off at that time”.

### **Making small positive changes**

Mandiso wanted to pursue a career in art but “everyone in my life told me that I should be a teacher”. While at university “I started to become more interested in teaching and I started to observe some classes”. According to Mandiso, being a teacher gave her the opportunity to make “a difference in some people’s life” and to make “small positive changes”.

Mandiso, mentioned that as an overseas teacher new to the New Zealand context “there wasn’t really an induction to speak of. I was included in a typical staff meeting”. Furthermore, she commented that at some point she was “shown a list of things that needed ticks and boxes” and “a lot of time those boxes were ticked” even though “it wasn’t done sufficiently or at all”. She “asked several questions about the classroom and the students” but the only “advice I was given was .... just get through your first day”.

According to Mandiso the aspects that are most critical to the success of a newly special needs teacher are the “support of senior teachers” and “to have one person ideally someone who I can shadow for maybe even a whole semester”. Considering that special needs teaching in New Zealand was so new to her, she felt that colleagues only helped her “out of kindness” but it was not “part of their job description”. She felt that because of the absence of a mentor, she “could not contact and ask 1:1 questions” about her teaching.

Mandiso, said that as a new special needs education teacher “I was alone in my class” without assistance from a mentor and “the teacher aide would not even stay in the classroom”. She would “find some things in the classroom and try to figure out how they were used” to do her job effectively. She felt that “sometimes” her needs were met but “I was often made to feel that if I asked too many question I was incompetent” or not “capable of doing my job”. According to Mandiso, her immediate professional guidance and support did not come from senior teachers but rather from “other teachers” and that it is “unfair” because the others “have enough going on”. She emphasised, when schools;

“... hire overseas teachers they really need somebody, one person in charge that would drop everything and help that person, guiding the overseas

teachers” to get more acquainted with the New Zealand curriculum, behaviour management strategies and special needs pedagogy.

She felt professional development “was about adult communication” rather than focussing “on classroom technique or new ways of working together as a team with the children”. Mandiso said these professional developments would have been more beneficial if the focus shift to “autism (and the general behaviours for someone with severe autism) or somebody with brain injury, other behaviours and how to manage them”. She also believed that as a new special needs education teacher she needed “a little more detail of each individual child before getting in the classroom”. Mandiso commented that teaching in a special needs classroom is a “whole different way of testing students” and when you “have really good support, it makes everything easier” and “you feel like you are part of the team”. She commented that “in NZ, I was completely alone and I didn’t feel that I was part of a team”.

In addition to the above, Mandiso felt that she found it difficult to adapt her content knowledge to the New Zealand curriculum because “the standards and the testing are completely different” and the “setup of the school is completely different”. According to Mandiso moving to New Zealand from the United States of America came as a “cultural shock” because she “did not expect it to be such a big difference”. What she experienced was quite new to her “the way people communicate, the way they live, the way they think” and “it was hard for me to adjust because I didn’t expect it”. To overcome this she had to adjust her teaching pedagogy to be more culturally sensitive because “there were students from all over the world, especially Island cultures” in her class. She felt that;

“... the school let me down not introducing me to the different aspects of the New Zealand pedagogy in terms of the different cultures and how to teach in special education”.

Being new to teaching in New Zealand, Mandiso felt that the mentor responsible for her induction did not give her enough feedback. She states that “I just have to listen to what she had to say” and was never asked for “an opinion or how I was doing, they were just very brief”. She indicated that they “only want the paper work done” and was never interested in “how I engaged with the students”. She explained that “the only thing they did for me was make me feel like I was an incompetent teacher” and there was “no constructive criticism”.

In conclusion Mandiso felt that because of her “horrible experiences in NZ” she “decided to quit teaching” and would not advise any overseas trained teacher to teach in New Zealand special needs schools.

### **Thrown in the deep end**

After teaching in a few mainstream schools in New Zealand schools, Chippa started teaching in a special needs school in 2006 and felt it was a little bit different. She stated that it was “not an easy entry” because there was not a “proper system of structured orientation” at school. She felt like an outsider simply “when you asked people for help rather than giving you help they gave you a judgement” and it was only at the end of the first year that they realised “they did not speak to me about certain things”.

According to Chippa a senior staff member was responsible for her induction” did not feel very obliged to teach me” simply because she felt that “it was not her responsibility”. Chippa reiterated that because of a lack of proper induction, it took “me a long time [3 years] to find my feet” which led to a breakdown in our

collegial relationship. Despite having prior teaching experience, she “needed mentoring in a new area” and she felt that the process of orientation was not “done properly”. She identified various “safety issues” because of a lack of proper induction that could “endanger the student” or could have “even endanger me”. To resolve this, she asked questions and even went to her syndicate leader (deputy principal) for assistance, but she was “not very helpful or either very busy doing other things or attending to the needs of other peoples”. Chipipa highlighted that teachers should get “structured orientation” before taking up “full responsibility of a class” and that such orientation should “allow the teacher to fit into the new learning frame work”.

Chipipa is of the opinion that there is an assumption amongst senior school management that OTTs “know nothing” and felt what she needed at that stage was an “overview of what to expect” as well as “somebody to sit down with me and talk to me of what to expect” since special needs teaching was new to her. She reiterated that “special needs teaching was not part of my teacher training” and to ensure that she does her work effectively, she reached out to other colleagues.

Chipipa commented that teachers “who was not necessary in my room or my area came to help me” they listened to my concerns and sat “me down and told me certain expectations, gave me advice that would help me to survive”. Stemming from this experience, she enrolled at the University of Auckland to obtain more information about special needs teaching to get “a little bit more comfortable” while also reading up on issues in special needs teaching.

She reached out to colleagues from a previous school that “gave me quite a few books on special needs” which they used to “orientate teachers who came and teach students with special needs” at the school. She mentioned that not all

colleagues were “very forthcoming with help” but one colleague in particular YYY helped me to “find that bridge from mainstream and special needs”. YYY taught me how to “adapt my teaching methods so that students can access the curriculum” and this was “really helpful” to ensure that the students become confident learners.

Chippa mentioned that colleagues not responsible for her mentoring and induction helped her to “understand the new curriculum and the planning process” while another colleague helped her to “tackle literacy in the New Zealand context” and she still uses “some of the ideas” today. As an OTT, Chippa expected her colleagues to provide “support, guided help, orientation” and not just orientation. Chippa commented that as an overseas trained teacher “teaching quite successfully” for almost 20 years overseas, she was confronted with “new situations where people expect you to know it all”. She stated that there was all this “new equipment and all special terminology” unknown to her and without a proper induction, she was unable to support her class while also needing help to be “brought up to speed” with what was expected of her.

In retrospect, Chippa felt that aspects such as “planning, special needs conditions in the class, an organisational map of the school, who do I see for what, behaviour management and legal issues teaching special needs students, etc.” should form part of the induction programme and reiterated that induction is very important “not just for overseas teachers but all new teachers” because “each school does it slightly differently”.

Chippa remembered that in the beginning she “struggled a lot” because she had high expectations of her students but soon learned with “experience to bring it within the ability level of the kids or to provide such support that they could understand”. She acknowledged that this was in part because of a “lack of knowledge



of special needs teaching and my past experience in mainstream”. In her role as a special needs teacher she recalls how she had to “bridge the learning process for those kids and provide extra support for those who have a different learning style” in order to learn and understand the concepts. As an OTT new to special needs pedagogy she had to “work through all the barriers that stop them” from learning and this took various forms. Chippa mentioned that;

“sometimes it is the way you present the questions or the way you prepared the writing or the way you prepared the equipment that they use” or “maybe the task that you want to do to show that they learned need to be adapted” to focus on the student learning.

Chippa commented that she went through a “reality shock” and was overwhelmed by:

“The kind of special needs that I encountered here was different because I encountered kids with multiple disabilities which I’ve never seen before. Some of these kids in satellites.... I might have met one or two of them within the context of the normal mainstream ... but multiply disabled kids I’ve never encountered in Zimbabwe because our system was totally different”, a clear indication of the shifts moving from mainstream into special needs teaching.

Chippa mentioned that the New Zealand “curriculum is much clearer” in spite of the fact that it is “a bit prescriptive and not leaving room for creativity”. Having to face challenging behavioural issues in her class Chippa recalls running into trouble so serious “I wanted to leave my position.” Chippa felt comfortable teaching children of diverse cultures because of prior teaching experiences in a “multicultural atmosphere” where she taught for over 20 years but the most serious thing that hit her between the eyes was “the level of disability of some of the multiply disabled

kids” in New Zealand special needs schools. In spite of her previous teaching experience in a multicultural atmosphere, she had to “learn the basics of the Maori and Pacific Island cultures”.

Chippa felt that the special needs professional development “was not specific for me or aimed at me ... not even for a new teacher beginning in special education” but for the “school in general”. When she met with the person responsible for her mentoring and induction Chippa recalled her wanting “this piece of paper and that piece of paper or whatever” simply because she “did not have the time” and felt that if she had time meeting with her mentor it “would have been different” and she could “observe the mentor teaching”. Chippa states that one of her greatest challenges was the “minimal support of senior management and colleagues” in contrast to what she experienced in Zimbabwe where people were “more cooperating and not competitive”. According to Chippa the mentor would “very rarely walk into the classroom .... She was so busy somewhere else.... until I found somebody that I asked” for help and this changed everything. However she explained that before meeting somebody willing to help her she: “broke down...you cry you really cry and you think maybe tomorrow you shouldn’t go back to that place”.

In spite of the frustrations colleagues came to her aid.

“They were not even responsible for my mentoring or it was not in their job description to help me but they sat with me and showed me how to do certain things or they gave me this piece of paper or a book and that piece of material that helped me on my way”.

Chippa was very open giving OTTs new to special needs advice and states that she

“... would find out where the person is from ... just as we do with students ....  
When we get new students ....we find out about them....you find out about the  
kind of teacher training they had or the teaching experience”.

Looking back at her beginning into special needs teaching, she remembered that at the end of the year people did not “even know where I’ve been teaching or what school I’ve taught at”. Giving advice to OTTs, Chippa mentioned that;

“... you find a way of helping them to settle into the situation by finding similarities or contrast between their past experience and their current expectations and then help them get on with the job” recalling that at her first school they “gave you a piece of paper with dates” and “they don’t show you how to complete it and it took me a very long time how to do my units properly” but with a “little bit of patience and time from other colleagues” I survived my first year.

A clear contrast was noted between the school she taught at initially and the school where she started teaching special needs. She gave a thorough explanation of what she expects from a mentor “someone who walks with you ... in the shoes that you are walking in and came in to even demonstrate things ... to give you an inside view”. She felt incompetent because the New Zealand curriculum was different and a mentor could make a “big difference between a person’s success and failure” in special education. According to Chippa the mentoring structure needed changes because some teachers received “more practical assistance” from their mentor because “the mentor had more knowledge and was more confident” while other teachers had a mentor who “did not have as much knowledge or were not as confident” in what they are doing. This according to Chippa raised concerns as

“some of the mentors did not even know the different learning areas of the curriculum and were supposed to pass that knowledge on to other teachers” especially teachers new to special needs.

In conclusion she reiterates that “a mentor has to be someone with current practise because scenarios change and they change very fast” and felt that “OTTs are just thrown in the deep end without a mentor or a structured induction programme”.

## **SUMMARY**

This chapter focuses on the narratives of each participant, looking at their experiences as they transitioned from being a mainstream teacher while they explaining their “honeymoon” period into special needs teaching. Research related to the experiences of overseas trained teachers transitioned into special needs teaching is akin to “a needle in a haystack” with little known data to retrieve or compare with. This part of the study has identified the significant induction and mentoring issues facing overseas trained teachers new to special needs. Most of the participants were unprepared with transitioning from mainstream teaching into special needs teaching.

These implicit themes describe / explain that special needs teaching was very difficult for most of the participants because they did not receive sufficient professional development that support their teaching.

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### CONCLUSION and IMPLICATIONS

When teachers are part of a professional learning community in which they are acknowledged, supported and challenged, and feel that it is safe to take risks and share information, they can review and alter their teaching practice so that it makes a real difference to their students' learning (Ministry of Education, 2004, p.18).

#### OVERVIEW

This study explored and provided some insight into the induction and mentoring experience in special needs teaching in South Auckland, New Zealand. To pursue this study, accounts of the induction and mentoring experiences of eight purposefully selected overseas trained teachers was examined to find out their perceptions about the phenomenon under study. It is worth reiterating that induction and mentoring happens “when an experienced colleague provides dedicated time to a PRT to guide, support, give feedback and facilitate evidence-informed reflective learning conversations” (NZTC, 2011, p.3).

The investigation focused on five South Auckland Special Need Schools to highlight how important the induction and mentoring programme is because of the complexity of special needs teaching. In the process of “re-constructing” their teaching career, overseas trained teachers drew associations between their current purpose (being a special needs teacher) and actions and their previous experiences (being a mainstream teacher); they also identified hostility and institutional forces that directed them towards certain roles and unknown responsibilities.

Special needs teachers do not just face challenges and difficulties; they also experience joys and rewards. This helps them to develop their identities as special needs teachers. Several of the teachers described how their own transitional experiences- from one country and culture to another – afforded them a particular

empathy for these students who have profound learning challenges, resulting in the development of special affection towards these students and teaching in special needs.

The researcher concludes this study with some suggestions made by these overseas trained teachers advising “other” teachers wanting to make special needs teaching their career, how to organise support, survive and thrive as a special needs teachers. This part of the study will discuss:

- a) Overseas trained teachers experiences of induction and mentoring as they transition from being a mainstream teacher to becoming a special needs teacher,
- b) Provides an analysis of the narratives of the participants, and
- c) The discussion of the findings.

## **INTRODUCTION**

The findings have identified induction and mentoring as a critical part of professional development for overseas trained teachers. On the whole, the success of the schools’ induction and mentoring programme can have a major impact on the quality of teaching for students with special needs. Therefore, student learning in special needs schools will only improve when we focus our efforts on improving teaching.

While most of the studies showed that beginning teachers who participated in some kind of induction had higher scores little is known about the transition experiences of overseas trained teachers new to special education. In addition to this, little evidence exists about the impact solo teaching or isolation has, especially for overseas trained teachers new to special education, who, upon accepting a position in

a school, are often left on their own to succeed or fail within the confines of their own classrooms – often likened to a “lost at sea” or “sink or swim” experience (Johnson & Birkeland, 2003). Others go further – arguing comparing teaching as an occupation that “cannibalizes its young” (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004, p.28) – akin to a “trial by fire” experience where newcomers often end up placed in the most challenging and difficult classroom and school assignments (Lortie & Clement, 1975, as cited in Hargreaves, 2010).

### **Challenges of newly appointed OTTs in Special needs Schools**

#### **Insufficient Observation and Inadequate Constructive feedback**

Six of the overseas trained teachers wrote about a lack of opportunity to observe their mentor or being observed by the mentor or any other staff member while only two overseas trained teachers (Nandi and Kagiso) commented that they had the opportunity to observe their mentor giving a lesson on numerous occasions. Both participants spoke highly about having the opportunity to be observed and being observed by other teachers from within and outside their satellite classes. They also spoke very positively about being observed by the mentor and were provided with “formative and progressive feedback” along with having several team sessions (NZTC, 2011, p. 9). Both commented that the feedback was helpful and s/he “gave a lot of information” and “asked for feedback” while also reflecting on their teaching practice which formed part of their professional growth and learning conversations.

One participant (Mandiso) felt that the feedback was not up to standard and more emphasis was placed on the “paper work” while two participants (Naledi and Thabo) felt that more focus was put on the document that needed to be filled in order to get provisional registration. The effectiveness of mentoring was directly related to the quality of feedback from mentors to overseas trained teachers on how they can

improve their practice. One overseas trained teacher (Chippa) commented that she did not have the opportunity to see what “happens in special needs class” and felt that this could have been very valuable in terms of personal growth. The majority of overseas trained teachers had little or no feedback on their teaching strategies and classroom management style. Only two participants (Nandi and Kagiso) mentioned about the positive impact team teaching had on their professional growth while being observed by others. Other than this, no mention was made of feed-forward as part of professional growth and development.

Just as students want to succeed as learners, teachers want to succeed teaching their students. However, the majority of overseas trained teachers in this study did not receive any feedback and most of them were on their own to adjust practices to better serve students with intellectual disability. Words like “left to my own devices”; “nobody to give me advice” and “try to figure out how things work” indicates “pockets” of limited mentoring. For these participants it is very hard to effectively teach without “structural support from the employer and senior colleagues” essential components of high quality induction (NZTC, 2011, p. 13). Ensuring that overseas trained teachers received formative and progressive feedback, school communities should have a clear understanding of what these teachers require and then close the gap between their expectations for effective teaching and the actual teaching occurring in classrooms.

The majority of overseas trained teachers commented that they see feedback as the path to better teaching but because of the absence of a mentor they did not have time for “reflective learning conversations” of their practice, which is a vital component of lifelong learning (NZTC, 2011, p. 5). Only two participants (Nandi and Kagiso) reflected on their positive experience having a mentor who provided opportunities for “reflection on practice” (Schön 1983, as cited in Kinsella, 2010),



while six participants did not receive any constructive, open two-way feedback on their teaching. Since special needs teaching was new to them this created a vacuum. Reflecting on practice has no effect in a vacuum and to be powerful in its effect, there must be a learning context to which feedback is addressed. However, most of the overseas trained teachers did not even have a “learning context” to reflect from and since the subject area (special education) was unfamiliar or abstruse there is no way they could relate the new information to “past” experience.

The lack of constructive feedback by mentors created a vacuum and the majority of these overseas trained teachers could not explore three vital questions: (a) Where am I going? - leading to greater engagement; (b) How am I doing? - consists of information about progress, and (c) Where to next? - providing information that leads to greater possibilities for learning and evaluating professional competency (Black & Wiliam, 1998). For these overseas trained teachers it is important to close the gap between where they are and where they are aiming to be in their “new” teaching career.

### **Scarcity of Mentoring and Induction Prospects**

Mentoring forms a crucial part of the induction process and yet, too often it is the most neglected aspect of the orientation process of “novice” teachers. The majority of the overseas trained teachers in this study arrived in New Zealand determined to pursue their teaching career and accept new pedagogical challenges, but soon faced added challenges that would test them because of their lack of New Zealand cultural knowledge as compared to locally trained teachers (Stevens, Emil, & Yamashita, 2010). Most of the participants in this study agreed that mentors play a vital role in the induction and development of teachers, helping ‘novice’ teachers to overcome pitfalls and improve practice. Having said this, the majority of

participants, six in total, were not assigned a mentor and had an “absent” mentor as illustrated in Table C.

Response given	Number
Yes	1
No	6
Partly	1
Total	8

*Table C* *OTTs assigned to work with a mentor*

There is consensus amongst participants, that having a mentor, they could learn from the mentor as s/he modelled and scaffolded (Palincsar, 1986) what best practice in special education entailed. As two participants (Mandiso and Themba) express in their respected narratives, a mentor should “demonstrate things ... to give you an inside view” and be “somebody that gives advice and shares their experience with” novice teachers. Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976) (as cited in Palincsar, 1986) reiterate that scaffolding provides a “child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts” (p.90).

The findings revealed that not all participants had a fair share of educative mentoring and or active support and commitment from professional leaders besides being introduced in the staff room. The prospect of having a mentor is immeasurable, someone who can generate tremendous potential for teachers to be renewed professionally. Two participants (Nandi and Kagiso) were assigned a mentor; five (Themba, Chippa, Dingaan, Thabo and Mandiso) did not have a mentor, while one (Naledi) was given the name of a mentor: “apart from being said this is your mentor in a staff meeting or something” as illustrated in Table C. The six participants who did not have a mentor lacked an opportunity to “learn to teach” and to reflect on their

own teaching, knowledge, beliefs and practices and broaden their professional knowledge of special education (Feiman-Nemser, 2001b).

These findings serve as further evidence that mentoring as a teaching tool and workforce strategy is an interactive dynamic process of professional growth and learning. Since, most of these overseas trained teachers were new to special needs and being PRTs they were entitled to “a co-constructive relationship and programme of professional learning” (p.1), however the majority of them did not have the equivalent of one day mentoring as stated in the NZTC (2011) guidelines.

The lack of proper induction is visible through the statements expressed below by four participants (Themba, Naledi, Mandiso and Thabo) and mirrored by the many challenges they faced trying to master special needs pedagogy - “I was left to my own devices”; “I was alone in my class”; “I don’t think that I ever really met with my mentor” and “She very rarely walked into my classroom”. A further alarming fact is that most of them were “thrown in the deep end” and were expected to “learn the ropes” or “sink or swim” within the confines of their classrooms as illustrated in Table D.

Response given	Number
Yes	0
No	7
Partly	1
Total	8

*Table D Induction programme met my individual needs*

This further signals inequality in terms of the interpretation of the policy set out by the NZTC (2011) or, is it just poor neglect on the part of a professional learning community?

## Professional support and Guidance

All teachers, whether beginners or overseas trained teachers possess some kind of knowledge of what ‘best practice’ and teaching should be like. However, they need someone, not necessarily an expert teacher, to “show them the ropes”. Simply recruiting more teachers of different cultures is not enough. They need to establish and participate in teacher networks in order to bridge some of the cultural differences. Ensuring that overseas trained teachers smoothly transition into special needs education requires more than effective professional development and a mentoring programme. It is vital that the school community (staff and management) acknowledge overseas trained teachers to be competent teachers who need genuine commitment and support from all and that it is not only the responsibility of a few individuals to support them (Santoro, 2007).

The findings in this study acknowledge the lack of collegial support as indicated by six of the overseas trained teachers. They were all in agreement, apart from one participant, that a lack of ongoing school support, an absence of effective and sensitive professional development left them unable to face the challenges ahead and they were left to “sink” in the confine of their classroom (Table E).

Response given	Number
Yes	6
No	1
Partly	1
Total	8

*Table E Isolated and unsupported in first job in special education*

Not all the participants were able to draw upon their past experiences as “outsiders”. In order to fully understand special education, the overseas trained teachers need opportunities to learn how to recognise what they teach effectively in

class, and how to operate in complex environments where decisions are made all the time based on experience, curricular goals, and individual student ability.

### **Observation and Feedback**

Nearly every overseas trained teachers in this study had a story of the difficulties gaining appropriate advice and information from “others”. As for many they wanted “consistent genuine feedback” because they wanted to get it right and not “carry on doing it wrong” (Gray & Smith, 2000). Not being observed by a mentor was a major hassle for one of the participants (Madiso) because she wanted feedback that addressed the positive and negative aspects of her practice so that she could identify progress and any areas that required further development (as illustrated in Table F and G).

Response given	Number
Yes	1
No	5
Partly	2
Total	8

*Table F Teaching has been observed by mentor*

Response given	Number
Yes	1
No	6
Partly	1
Total	8

*Table G Opportunity to observe my mentor teaching*

There were many disappointments reported by overseas trained teachers in this study. In general, the overseas trained teachers felt they had had inadequate preparation for the expectations placed on them and as one participant reflected; “my mentor was not able to give feedback to me because she was not familiar with the

NZ curriculum”. Most teachers wanted more time for observation. Others noted that they expected: “to see what s/he is doing” and “somebody to sit down with me and talk to me of what to expect”.

There was awareness amongst all overseas trained teachers that to develop their practice and to improve their understanding of special needs teaching they must learn to use their practice as a ‘site of inquiry’ (Ball & Cohen, 1999). This implied that they needed to ‘look inside’, trying something out and studying the effects to extend their understanding. However, they felt, because of a lack of feedback, they were ‘stuck’ between the past and the present. Such growth depends heavily on being observed and the tendency to seek evidence, while remaining open to interpretation. For most of the overseas trained teachers, except the two that had feedback, the situation seems dim because they did not have opportunities to talk with others about their teaching, to examine problems, and to consider alternative actions. Being new to special needs teaching the overseas trained teachers should have opportunities to talk about specific practices, and ask for clarification, and share uncertainties, request help and develop skills critical in the ongoing improvement of teaching.

The social capital of schools and the culture of teaching also made it difficult for mentors and the overseas trained teacher to work together in productive ways. For many of the participants teaching was a “private activity” in isolation. They were alone in their classrooms out of sight of the other colleagues. This means many had little experience of the core activities unique to special needs education - a lack of observation and talking with other teachers about teaching and learning (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2000). They rarely saw another teacher’s practice, and had limited opportunities to talk about their teaching, challenges and expectations in a systematic structural environment (Feimen-Nemser & Beasley, 1998).

One participant in particular believed that reaching out for help would just highlight her lack of creativity and she believed that “good teachers work things out” for themselves so survival was the focus (as illustrated in Table H).

Response given	Number
Yes	6
No	1
Partly	1
Total	8

*Table H Survival has been daily ongoing struggle*

### **Professional Development**

Generally, professional development for experienced teachers takes two forms: staff development initiated by the school and by outside agencies. Only one participant reported having PD with professionals / outside agencies and other schools along with PD offered by the Ministry of Education. However, the majority of participants felt that the PD “was not specific” for them and somehow they could not ‘apply’ it to their situation because of a lack of special needs knowledge. They also felt that the PD did not bring about the teaching transformation they were expected because of the complex nature of special needs education (as illustrated in Table I).

Response given	Number
Yes	1
No	7
Partly	0
Total	8

*Table I Professional Development – meet my individual needs*

A further disappointment raised by many participants was not having opportunities to choose the content of the sessions, and limited opportunities for

meaningful interaction or follow-up. They felt that they acquired “new ideas”, but did not have someone practically demonstrating the teaching practice in a real classroom setting. Dissatisfaction with conventional approaches and realising that teacher learning is central, three participants enrolled at university to re-train in certain aspects of special education to improve their teaching and pedagogy of special needs.

### **Dealing with challenging behaviour/ cultural differences**

To engage in conversations with colleagues about subject matter, teaching, and learning to teach requires teachers to reflect on teaching (Schön 1983, as cited in Kinsella, 2010). As illustrated in Table J, seven out of eight participants received no guidance from colleagues to support them with students that display challenging behaviour or students that came from different cultural backgrounds. Only one overseas trained teacher (Naledi) visited the local Marae in the neighbourhood to learn about the Māori protocols, had PDs looking at the protocols of the different Pacific cultural groups and also focusing on students with challenging behaviour.

Response given	Number
Yes	1
No	7
Partly	0
Total	8

*Table J*

*Instructions given to students with challenging behaviour and how to teach the culturally diverse student.*



## Collegial support/ New Zealand Curriculum

Many of the participants, six in total, felt that in order for them to teach in new and challenging ways they needed to rethink their pedagogy, their conceptions of special needs, and growth in their application of the NZ curriculum.

Response given	Number
Yes	1
No	6
Partly	2
Total	8

*Table K Assistance and guidance given by colleagues*

Based on their experiences they could not construct knowledge together and belong to a strong, collegial group where they engaged in challenging pedagogy and “teaching for understanding” (McLaughlin, as cited in Feiman-Nemser, 2001b). New approaches to professional development, expected teachers to talk through differences and where else can these overseas trained teachers start but by having an inquiry-oriented conversation with their colleagues.

Another aspect of collegial support that surfaces from the findings was – co-teaching or team teaching. No teacher can be a solo performer of all the strategies and knowledge. As one participant summarised it:

“... when the classes are unsettled and we are waiting or when we are down on staff I can just call in one of my colleagues, one of the staff to come in and s/he will just take one or two of my students and I think that is a huge, huge help and support”.

The outcome of the study reflected that induction and mentoring is not just the responsibility of a specialised few but, as teachers work together, they can resolve the learning styles that exist in classrooms, and to modify their teaching practice accordingly (Brook & Grady, 1996). Based on the evidence provided by the narratives of the participants they could learn how to individualise their teaching and create opportunities for all their students, which they could mainly improve from interaction with colleagues. More and more overseas trained teachers new to special needs teaching faced the prospect of having to teach in ways they had not been taught before and, just like students, teachers learn by doing, reading and reflecting, collaborating with other teachers and sharing what they see.

## **RECOMMENDATIONS**

Mentoring in the corporal workplace and teaching, as any occupation is very complex! “Novice” new to teaching, including overseas trained teachers, needs someone who can ‘show them the ropes’ and support them to, develop their competence and pedagogy, while assisting them to fit in to a school community different from the one they migrated from. The findings of this study have shown the majority of the teachers taught alone without proper “educative mentoring” while only two had educative mentoring over a period of time benefiting from having the advice, support, and role modelling of colleagues or a mentor. There is consensus that overseas trained teachers are more effective when they can learn from and are supported by a strong community of colleagues.

The findings further acknowledge that teaching is inherently difficult and even ‘experts’ do not have easy answers and that a mentor relationship should not be the only helping relationship available in schools for overseas trained teachers new to special needs. Being new to a teaching culture and school community in a foreign

country places a huge demand on overseas trained teachers who also need support to talk through their emotions (Hargreaves, 1994). Connecting with the community ‘out there’ means teachers’ working more and more closely with the students’ whānau, and other experts. In addition, working effectively with other adults’ means they will sometimes be the ones who are learning not teaching.

### **New approaches to mentoring**

Mentoring is a key strategy of induction, creating and cultivating personal growth and the development of interpersonal skills for a novice in the workplace. The findings of the study clearly differentiate between: (1) a functionalist model, where there is a formal distance between the learner and the mentor and (2) a relational model, where the learner is seen as a valued equal partner who have specific support needs and regarded as the “highest quality mentoring state” (Ragins & Verbos, 2006, p. 21, as cited in Holland, 2011). Although senior management tend to focus on the bigger picture, overseas trained teachers would definitely benefit from a combination of both approaches leading to a greater involvement of the school community (Fielder & Van Haren, 2009). Within the study, the bulk of the participants continuously expressed negative feelings associated with a lack of mentoring support. This suggested the need for future studies to examine methods for better “educative mentoring” in order to provide overseas trained teachers with the appropriate support. Educative mentoring is a clear shift where both mentors and mentees learn from each other through conversations, practice, feedback, modelling and social interactions rather than the mentee being depended on the mentor to transfer their knowledge.

Overseas trained teachers should be taught coping skills and strategies how to unravel potential behaviour management situations and understand the demands that

are present in schools. Many participants expressed frustration that they were not prepared for some of the difficult situations associated with special needs teaching, were not prepared for some of the difficult situations, and were not equipped to handle the situation to which they were exposed. Haston and Russell (2012) argued that exposure to real life situations might prepare and strengthen teachers pledge to teaching if they feel successful during genuine learning situations. The participants within this study, except for one (who gave up teaching), persevered with their goals, but struggled with coping at times. Open collegial conversations could benefit special needs teachers to explore coping skills in an effort to identify specific struggles and counter them with specific, effective strategies within the schools system. Brien, Hass and Savoie (2012) are of the opinion that teachers' needs must be addressed by providing teachers with appropriate coping skills to avoid feeling overcome by expectations and stressors.

Overseas trained teachers would benefit from access to practical observations and exposure to student profiles. The participants in this study indicated that many of their classrooms contain students with various intellectual disabilities that require instruction at different levels / pace, require Individualised Educational Plans (IEP), and have different learning styles that need to be catered for. The participants reported that "one-size-fits-all" does not apply to students who are so different and observations of other teachers may give them another "point of view". Thus, the results of this study further indicate that not being able to observe other teachers needs to be enshrined in the day to day organisation of schools. Often planned observation sessions go up in smoke because of constrains such as insufficient human resources or unforeseen absenteeism of staff on the day. The results of this study also indicate the need for professional development for mentors who had poor communication skills and/or did not know how to support overseas trained teachers

which may be different than supporting a beginning teacher who has no prior experience.

### **Effective classroom-based support**

Most of the overseas trained teachers expressed a lack of classroom-based support to ensure a smooth transition into special education. This study suggested that special needs schools still have a long way to go in improving teachers' induction/ mentoring to ensuring that each student has well informed teachers in class. The outcome of the study suggested that overseas trained teachers depend on senior management / mentors for induction and mentoring however, the onus rests on the entire school community. It is therefore important to set in place a systematic whole-school induction model where overseas trained teachers are given a buddy, not necessarily a mentor, to help develop their capacity.

For personal growth overseas trained teachers need a systematic process that is embedded in a school culture that meets the individual and professional needs of the teacher. The study suggested that a range of mentors might be utilised by a learner (teacher) at any one time, rather than relying on a single mentor in a 1-1 relationship. Just as it takes a village to raise a child, so it may take an entire school community to support a "new" teacher. The use of teaching as inquiry as outlined in the New Zealand Curriculum could also be a useful tool for mentors to support overseas trained teachers by reflecting on their own practice to enhance their teaching.

### **Classroom behaviour management**

The area that seemed to cause the overseas trained teachers the most distress was the notion of being incompetent dealing with students with behavioural problems. These teachers had high behavioural expectations but their hopes were

sometimes shattered because of a lack of professional support dealing with students with severe / moderate behaviour challenges. Several aspects of behavioural management were highlighted by overseas trained teachers ranging from exposure to a student profile and behavioural management strategies. One teacher commented about an overseas trained teacher colleague having to face an unbearable situation without the training and support that would actually be “suicide”. Another reported having to face violence, defiance, and a destructive attitude not knowing how to handle the situation because of a lack of professional development in that area.

One participant felt emotionally drained up to the point of wanting to call it quits but anticipating that maybe tomorrow things would change while also contemplating not going back to “that place”. The lack of behavioural strategies experienced by some overseas trained teachers may in part relate to their inexperience of teaching in special education particularly in New Zealand.

### **Professionalism**

The potential for meaningful relationships with other colleagues resonates as a very powerful theme throughout the narratives of the eight participants. Whatever the “story”, the teachers in the study felt they were excluded from the potential professional growth and social encounters, formal and informal collaboration, that might help them develop their teaching skills, and to help maintain relevant and meaningful curriculum planning, participate in joint decision-making, and feel a more general sense of belonging. The research finding revealed that overseas trained teachers can benefit from the encouragement and support and collaboration from colleagues and mentors. The increased collaboration from supportive colleagues and mentor can benefit overseas trained teacher transition from mainstream teaching into

special needs teaching, when they lose self-confidence due to a lack of special needs experience and self-efficacy (Onafowora, 2005).

For overseas trained teachers getting familiar with special needs pedagogy to bring about professional growth they need to observe their mentor's teaching methods, strategies and techniques. The following comment written by one of the participants in this qualitative study illustrates the importance of mentors since they can provide opportunities for the overseas trained teachers (new to New Zealand teaching philosophy) to master different instructional methods:

“I could see what s/he is doing and I saw what works and what didn't and I can build on and bring my own flavour into it, yeah and that was helpful and I was hands off at that time”.

As this excerpt displays, observing and mentor modelling teaching can be enlightening. This also indicates that this way of teacher learning- will be more fruitful when the mentor teaching in the overseas trained teachers own class so that s/he can observe how the mentor will cope with students with behavioural problems. The overseas trained teachers in this study felt that often the alienated relationship which they have with colleagues and administrators are barriers to successful teaching, particularly teaching students with special learning disabilities. The teachers felt that this “alienated relationship” directly flows out of the school culture of “how we do things here”, and administrative decisions that are engrained in rigid policies along with not wanting to change.

Many of the participants in this study, consequently, suggested that a serious rethinking of both process and content of teachers' professional development and mentoring would be necessary. A common suggestion was to implement induction and mentoring programmes that take into account the past experiences of overseas

trained teachers and include a multidisciplinary team that includes the cultural background of the new OTT.

The work of a special needs teacher demands new and different types of professional knowledge and understanding, and more extended pedagogical skills, than those required of mainstream teachers. In this respect, many overseas trained teachers in this study are expert teachers who became novices in their new “profession” as special needs teacher. They may lack knowledge and guidance that is needed to be competent special needs teachers. In other words, they may lack special needs pedagogy that is not theoretically grounded in text books (Cochran-Smith, 2003). Many of these overseas trained teachers often experienced “pedagogy shift” from the known to the unknown relating to stress and a need to establish new professional identities and develop new areas of expertise (Murray & Male, 2005).

An overseas trained teacher’s prior experiences in many but not all respects resemble that of new teachers, who must come to terms with changes in their circumstances on both a macro and micro level. They have to become familiar with the culture of the education system and the culture of an individual school (Peeler & Jane, 2005) shifting between the past and present ways of ‘knowing and ‘doing’ education.

## **LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

When discussing results of any study, it is important to recognise the limitations and constraints of the study. The strengths of any study include the ability to explore research on the lived-experience of the participants through prescriptive methods (Giorgi, 2006) and the provision of recognition to an area that is limited in the research literature.



The first limitation of this study includes relying solely on participants to provide the data for this study. Using interviews as the only method to collect data was a further limitation. A second limitation was a lack of information on the topic from literature. There are only a few studies focusing on induction and mentoring of overseas trained teachers with the bulk on studies concentrating on beginning teachers' induction into primary schools or secondary schools. In light of this it becomes clear that there is a barren area to begin further research into the impact that induction and mentoring might have on overseas trained teachers in, general and also specifically in New Zealand special needs schools.

The third limitation was the small sample size. Perceptions were provided by only eight participants preventing the opportunity to generalise finding to a larger teacher population.

Furthermore, the bulk of overseas trained teachers who participated in this study all reside in a specific geographical location of New Zealand, which limits the range of cultural factors and the ability to generalise the findings and four out of eight were from the same overseas country. Despite this, the research sample provides valid, real life stories of the participants' lived experiences as overseas trained teachers new to special needs teaching as told through their own voices during face-to-face interviews.

Additionally, the participants of this study were chosen based on selection criteria. The sample was not chosen using random selection. Rather, the research study sought out specific participants based on particular criteria (see Chapter Three).

The one negative aspect of this study was the exclusion of mentors. This study did not intend to find an understanding of mentors. Hence, they were intentionally left out of the participant recruitment.

Based on the findings of this study, many of the beliefs were shared based specifically on induction and mentoring experiences of these overseas trained teachers. It appears there may be valuable information to learn from the experience of overseas trained teachers who transitioned from being a mainstream teacher into becoming a special needs teacher. Therefore, this may be an area worthy of further study.

### **Implications for the Future**

Many special needs schools do not take into account the experiences and knowledge the experienced overseas trained teachers bring to the workforce. The study of induction and mentoring does not include the perceptions of other role players such as principals, Board of Trustees and mentors who are involved in the initiation of overseas trained teachers into special needs teaching. Another research proposal would be to obtain the perceptions of principals and other induction personnel who are the implementers of induction programmes in schools. The findings from such studies would shed further light on the lack of information in the field of OTTs' induction and mentoring from mainstream into special needs teacher induction.

Case studies of "novice" overseas trained teachers would be advantageous to gain insights into the process of learning to teach. Since this study is limited to a few special needs schools in South Auckland, a replicating study in other areas is needed. It would be interesting to find the perspectives of "novice" overseas trained teachers

teaching in other areas of New Zealand and how they would respond to questions like those asked in Appendix C.

More has to be demonstrated through research on how various inductions and mentoring programmes may influence “novice” overseas trained teachers’ competence, efficacy or desire to stay in special education. However, the small sample size the data collected is of limited predictive use and does not allow for broad generalisations. Thus, the importance of all these studies could be to ensure that overseas trained teachers are given educative mentoring - a mentor who provide professional support and guidance to implement “best practice” who take pride and are passionate about teaching in the special needs field.

A study of a larger group of overseas trained teachers new to special needs teaching would identify other issues not addressed in this study and provide insight on how best to manage the induction and mentoring of these teachers. An extended study, covering overseas trained teachers across all New Zealand special needs schools, to ascertain the effectiveness of induction and mentoring programmes, would establish whether the findings in this study accurately reflect the current situation in special needs schools.

It was not possible to investigate the response of mentors and how they would tailor their tasks to ensure that overseas trained teachers benefit from being mentored. An investigation of the effect of having a trained mentor working with overseas trained teachers could only occur when schools invest in formally trained mentors rather than nominating people in the position within a school staff. A study which examined the interactions between overseas trained teachers and mentors could provide further insight to ensure that both the overseas trained teachers and the

mentor benefit from their mentoring relationship to enhance and improve teaching and learning practices that benefits the students.

Professional learning communities and opportunities could be created to support collegiality amongst experienced teachers and “unexperienced” overseas trained teachers in special needs education. The Ministry of Education could support this initiative and provide opportunities for overseas trained teachers to take up revolving positions at various special needs schools over a six month period to familiarise and master the special needs pedagogy. This can also be supplemented with co-teaching workshops and increased on-site shadowing of overseas trained teachers’ new to special needs and may result in a better understanding of the role of a special needs teacher.

The participants within this study expressed negative attitudes and emotions towards the lack of collegial support due to these challenges. The current study was designed to explore the experiences of overseas trained teachers new to special needs teaching from their own perspectives, which revealed these identified difficulties within the mentoring process. Future research could explore the experiences of overseas trained teachers in co-teaching relationships in New Zealand special needs schools. This study lends support to the continued search for the educational understanding and educational delivery by special education teachers and in particular overseas trained teachers.

## **CLOSING COMMENTS**

Without a doubt, the focus lies heavily on the implementation of induction and mentoring programmes that takes into account the past experiences of overseas trained teachers. It seems clear that school management have to admit that this has not been considered in the past. This research builds on to the body of literature by

identifying and examining the issues of induction and mentoring needs of overseas trained teachers in South Auckland special needs schools. The identifiable challenges these teachers have faced needs to be looked at with a fresh perspective leading to advanced planning by government agencies, school management and mentors to enable overseas trained teachers to become effective practitioners in special education.

However, it is worth mentioning that not enough has been done apart from the introduction of the 2011 guidelines which forms mentoring and induction by the Government. The explorative approach has allowed me to investigate the perceptions of the induction and mentoring process of overseas trained teachers through an examination of the narrative of the overseas trained teachers' themselves. Each overseas trained teacher provided a unique narrative of his or her lived experiences transitioning from mainstream teaching into special needs teaching. These narratives highlighted the commonality that promotes the understanding of the essence of such a complex and distinguishing population. The eight overseas trained teachers OTTs were all qualified, intelligent, well-spoken individuals who were willing to provide honest perceptions that may improve the experience for other overseas trained teachers by supporting the intentions of this study.

Despite the fluctuating negativity of the experience, these teachers are living with the experiences that are important and filled with many positives. These teachers have lived and experienced the complex nature of special needs teaching daily and anger, conflict and negative feelings related to burnout were apparent. These teachers lived an experience of frustration but they have hopes that mainstream teachers can only envy. They are frustrated yet take pride in their students' progress and successes. On many occasions they are belittled by students but are proud of their students and personal and educational accomplishments. These

teachers wish to receive credit for their work, recognition of their efforts, and equal respect among their colleagues. They strive forward and remain responsible for and committed to their students and their total development.

I feel I have not fully explored this issue either in the course of writing or in my own mind, however, I do believe that some things are so valuable that we should pursue them no matter how complicated that may be. I acknowledge here that not all will agree with the intention of this study or support the findings in this but I trust that all will recognise the sincerity of my intent. I believe that to perfect induction and mentoring programmes for overseas trained teachers in special needs we have to move forward to develop relationships that have the potential to change the current practice.

Finally, I began each chapter of this thesis with a whakatauki, or a quote. The reason for selecting each whakatauki was intentional, to reflect the content of the chapter and to align with the central themes of this thesis.

## APPENDIX A

### Participant Invitation Sheet

#### **Title of Thesis:**

*A narrative inquiry into the induction and mentoring experiences of overseas trained teachers in South Auckland special schools.*

I want to invite you to take part in a research study which is part of my Master of Education in the Faculty of Culture and Society in the School of Education at Auckland University of Technology. You should understand why the research is being done, and what it will involve for you. Please read the following carefully and decide if you wish to take part. Ask me if there is anything that is not clear or if you want more information.

Eight interviews will form the second phase of the research. Participant will be selected randomly and I will contact you to confirm whether or not you have been selected for an interview.

If you are selected, the duration of the interview would be approximately 45 – 60 minutes and will be recorded and the transcribed. The interview would be at a time and venue convenient to you. I will ask you to provide me with a code name so that your recorded interview remains confidential. With your permission I may make notes on informal conversations we have.

All information will be treated in complete confidence and there will be no way that any reader of any report or publication resulting from the study will be able to identify respondents. Before the research is written up you will be given a copy of the transcript and you may change or delete any of it you wish. You have the right to look at any of the information provided and access what has been written about you

at any time. Your participation in this study is voluntary and you can withdraw at any time until the data is analysis

If you have any questions or concerns about this research please contact me or my supervisor. If you wish to be considered for the interview phase I would ask that you fill in the following consent form.

Thank you for your co-operation.

Kobus du Plessis



## APPENDIX B

### Consent Form



**Project title:** A narrative inquiry into the induction and mentoring experiences of overseas trained teachers in South Auckland special schools.

**Project Supervisor:** Dr Tafili Utumapu-McBride

**Researcher:** Kobus Andre du Plessis

**Overseas trained teachers at Special needs Schools in South Auckland.**

**Please read each statement carefully and put a tick in the box to show that you understand the research activities you will be involved in and the conditions before signing this form.**

- I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the information sheet dated July 2013.
- My participation in the research is voluntary and I have the right to withdraw any data that has not been transcribed.
- I, and the school will not be identified in any discussions or publications of the research.
- All the information pertaining to me will be destroyed (shred) after completion of this research in the office of the supervisor(s).

The information about me obtained during the research will only be used for the purpose of the research study, published papers and presentations.

My signed consent will be completed before the commencement of the interviews.

I understand that I will be involved in open-ended (unstructured) interviews.

I have read and understood the above research and guidelines and agree to participate in this research.

I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.

I understand that notes will be taken during the interviews and that they will also be audio-taped and transcribed.

I understand that I may withdraw myself or any information that I have provided for this project at any time prior to completion of data collection, without being disadvantaged in any way.

I wish to receive a copy of the report from the research (please tick one): Yes

No

**Participant's signature:** .....

**Participant's Name:** .....

Participant's Contact Details (if appropriate):

.....

.....

.....

Date: 29 August 2013

**Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 9**

**July 2013 AUTEK Reference number - Ethics Application: 13/144**

## APPENDIX C



### Interview Guide

#### Overseas trained teachers at special need schools- Interview Guide

***A. Questions for establishing the problems newly appointed overseas teachers experience.***

1. Describe your experience as a newly appointed overseas teacher in special education.
2. What, in your point of view, are the major concerns of overseas teachers (with 10 years' overseas teaching experience) new to special education at a school for students with intellectual disability?

***B. Questions to establish ways in which overseas teachers overcome problems.***

1. Which method(s) did you employ to obtain the information that you needed to do your job effectively?
2. Who or what played an instrumental role in providing you with support in acquiring the necessary teaching competence?
3. When seeking help, how readily were your needs met?

4. What was the most helpful/useful contribution made by colleagues?
5. What, according to your opinion, could a newly appointed overseas teacher in special education expect from his/her colleagues?

***C. Questions to establish which aspects or topics of professional development should form part of an induction programme for newly appointed overseas teachers in special education.***

1. Which aspects of teaching would you have liked to have formed part of your induction process at your school?
2. How necessary is teacher induction for newly appointed overseas teachers in special education and why?

***D. Think about the difference between teaching in New Zealand and teaching overseas:***

1. Have you found any difficulty in adapting your content knowledge to the New Zealand curriculum? If so, how have you managed this process and who has supported you through it?
2. Has it been necessary for you to change your behaviour management style? If, so, who has supported you and how has this process been monitored?
3. Were there any cultural differences that you found after moving to New Zealand? If so, can you elaborate please?
4. Have you participated in any professional development (PD) / learning which relates to special education while being inducted into your school?

5. Tell me about a typical meeting between you and the mentor responsible for your development (induction) – its duration, form of feedback, regularity, evidence of observation etc. Which of these has been helpful to you? Why?
6. In your opinion, what has been your greatest challenge as an overseas trained teacher in transition into teaching at a special needs school in New Zealand?
7. Based on your experience of New Zealand special needs schools, what advice would you give to other overseas trained teachers wanting to teach in New Zealand special need schools.

## APPENDIX D



### Demographic Information Sheet

This questionnaire seeks to find out information on the experiences, views and issues induction and mentoring have on overseas trained teaching staff in South Auckland special needs schools.

**Please answer the following questions by placing a  $\checkmark$  in the appropriate box that applies to you.**

#### *Section 1: Personal Background*

1. Are you male or female?

Male

Female

2. What age were you on your last birthday?

20 – 25 years

25 – 30 years

30 – 35 years

35 – 40 years

40 years and over

**3. Where did you gain your teaching qualification?**

South Africa	<input type="checkbox"/>	Zimbabwe	<input type="checkbox"/>
India	<input type="checkbox"/>	United States/Canada	<input type="checkbox"/>
Samoa	<input type="checkbox"/>	China (Asia)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Fiji	<input type="checkbox"/>	Other (please specify) .....	

**4. What is your highest qualification?**

Certificate	<input type="checkbox"/>
Diploma	<input type="checkbox"/>
Bachelor's Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>
Post- Graduate Diploma	<input type="checkbox"/>
Master's Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other (please specify) .....	

5. In what year did you immigrate to New Zealand? .....

6. How long have you been teaching in special education in New Zealand?

.....

7. What position are you currently holding at this school? .....

8. How did you receive specific information about the New Zealand teaching curriculum before coming here?



If so did you:

Visit the Ministry of Education website

A recruitment agency

Other means e.g. Friends

*(Please specify)*

.....

.....

## Section 2: Induction experience

Please read the following statements and respond with a ✓ in the appropriate box that applies to you.

Component	Yes	Partly	No
I felt welcomed and valued at the school when I started at my first school			
I was given a full introduction in all aspects of special needs			
I have a mentor who meets with me on a regular basis to help me develop my teaching practice			
This mentor was well informed about special education			
My teaching has been observed by my mentor			
I had opportunity to observe my mentor and teaching on several occasions.			
My teaching has been observed by my principal			
The induction programme has been designed to meet my individual needs			
The induction programme has been supportive			
The induction programme has been very challenging			
I received release time to observe other teachers			
I received valuable feedback on a regular basis from my mentor about my teaching style			
I received valuable feedback on a regular basis about behaviour management issues.			
It has been up to me to seek support from others at school			
I have a designated person who supports me with emotional and management related issues.			
I have received instruction on how to teach students with challenging behaviour.			
I have received instruction on how to teach in culturally diverse New Zealand classrooms			
Participation in the school wide professional development programme has contributed positively to my growth in special needs.			
I felt isolated and unsupported in my first job in special education			
Surviving in the classroom has been a dayly ongoing struggle			
I received assistance and guidance to assist me in gaining New Zealand curriculum knowledge			
I received assistance and guidance with understanding and applying New Zealand assesment practice ( eg. NCEA			
I regularly meet with other special needs teachers in the area to talk about curriculum and other issues			

You have now completed this questionnaire.

Thank you for your time and response to this questionnaire.

*I would welcome your participation in an interview at a later date.*

*If you are willing to do this please read the instructions on the page that follow.*

## APPENDIX E



A U T E C  
S E C R E T A R I A T

9 July 2013

Tafili Utumapu-McBride  
Faculty of Culture and Society

Dear Tafili

Re Ethics Application: **13/144 A narrative inquiry into the induction and mentoring experiences of overseas trained teachers in South Auckland special schools.**

Thank you for providing evidence as requested, which satisfies the points raised by the AUT University Ethics Committee (AUTEC).

Your ethics application has been approved for three years until 8 July 2016.

As part of the ethics approval process, you are required to submit the following to AUTEC:

- A brief annual progress report using form EA2, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics>. When necessary this form may also be used to request an extension of the approval at least one month prior to its expiry on 8 July 2016;
- A brief report on the status of the project using form EA3, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics>. This report is to be submitted either when the approval expires on 8 July 2016 or on completion of the project.

It is a condition of approval that AUTEC is notified of any adverse events or if the research does not commence. AUTEC approval needs to be sought for any alteration to the research, including any alteration of or addition to any documents that are provided to participants. You are responsible for ensuring that research undertaken under this approval occurs within the parameters outlined in the approved application.

AUTEC grants ethical approval only. If you require management approval from an institution or organisation for your research, then you will need to obtain this. If your research is undertaken within a jurisdiction outside New Zealand, you will need to make the arrangements necessary to meet the legal and ethical requirements that apply there.

To enable us to provide you with efficient service, please use the application number and study title in all correspondence with us. If you have any enquiries about this application, or anything else, please do contact us at [ethics@aut.ac.nz](mailto:ethics@aut.ac.nz).

All the very best with your research,

Kate O'Connor  
Executive Secretary  
Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: Kobus Andre Du Plessos [meku2u@xtra.co.nz](mailto:meku2u@xtra.co.nz)

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